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Microscopic Analysis of Plankton, Periphyton, and Activated Sludge

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MICROSCOPIC ANALYSIS OF PLANKTON, PERIPHYTON, AND ACTIVATED SLUDGE

TRAINING MANUAL

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A manual which covers the broad field of microscopic analysis of plankton, periphyton, and activated sludge including reference outlines on classification and identification of algae, zooplankton, and activated sludge; limnology of plankton, techniques of collection, and laboratory methods of analysis.

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MICROSCOPIC ANALYSIS OF PLANKTON, PERIPHYTON, AND ACTIVATED SLUDGE

This course is offered for professional personnel in the fields of water pollution control, limnology, water supply and waste treatment. Primary emphasis is given to practice in the identification and enumeration of microscopic organisms which may be encountered in water and activated sludge. Methods for the chemical and instrumental evaluation of plankton are compared with the results of microscopic examination in an extensive practical exercise. Problems of significance and control are also considered.

U.S. ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AGENCY
Office of Water Program Operations
TRAINING PROGRAM

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THE AQUATIC ENVIRONMENT

Part 1: The Nature and Behavior of Water

I INTRODUCTION

The earth is physically divisible into the lithosphere or land masses, and the hydrosphere which includes the oceans, lakes, streams, and subterranean waters.

A Upon the hydrospere are based a number of sciences which represent different approaches. Hydrology is the general science of water itself with its various special fields such as hydrography, hydraulics, etc. These in turn merge into physical chemistry and chemistry.

B Limnology and oceanography combine aspects of all of these, and deal not only with the physical liquid water and its various naturally occurring solutions and forms, but also with living organisms and the infinite interactions that occur between them and their environment.

C Water quality management, including pollution control, thus looks to all branches of aquatic science in efforts to coordinate and improve man's relationship with his aquatic environment.

II SOME FACTS ABOUT WATER

A Water is the only abundant liquid on our planet. It has many properties most unusual for liquids, upon which depend most of the familiar aspects of the world about us as we know it. (See Table 1)

TABLE 1

UNIQUE PROPERTIES OF WATER

Property	Significance
Highest heat capacity (specific heat) of any solid or liquid (except NH_3)	Stabilizes temperatures of organisms and geographical regions
Highest latent heat of fusion (except NH_3)	Thermostatic effect at freezing point
Highest heat of evaporation of any substance	Important in heat and water transfer of atmosphere
The only substance that has its maximum density as a liquid (4° C)	Fresh and brackish waters have maximum density above freezing point. This is important in vertical circulation pattern in lakes.
Highert surface tension of any liquid	Controls surface and drop phenomena, important in cellular physiology
Dissolves more substances in greater quantity than any other liquid	Makes complex biological system possible. Important for transportation of materials in solution.
Pure water has the highest di-electric constant of any liquid	Leads to high dissociation of inorganic substances in solution
Very little electrolytic dissociation	Neutral, yet contains both H^+ and OH^- ions
Relatively transparent	Absorbs much energy in infra red and ultra violet ranges, but little in visible range. Hence "colorless"

B Physical Factors of Significance

1 Water substance

Water is not simply "H_2O" but in reality is a mixture of some 33 different substances involving three isotopes each of hydrogen and oxygen (ordinary hydrogen H^1, deuterium H^2, and tritium H^3; ordinary oxygen O^{16}, oxygen 17, and oxygen 18) plus 15 known types of ions. The molecules of a water mass tend to associate themselves as polymers rather than to remain as discrete units. (See Figure 1)

SUBSTANCE OF PURE WATER

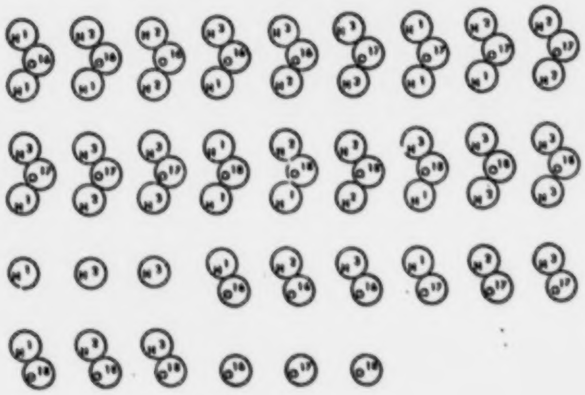

Figure 1

2 Density

a Temperature and density: Ice. Water is the only known substance in which the solid state will float on the liquid state. (See Table 2)

TABLE 2

EFFECTS OF TEMPERATURE ON DENSITY OF PURE WATER AND ICE*

Temperature (°C)	Density	
	Water	Ice**
-10	.99815	.9397
- 8	.99869	.9360
- 6	.99912	.9020
- 4	.99945	.9277
- 2	.99970	.9229
0	.99987----	.9168
2	.99997	
4	1.00000	
6	.99997	
8	.99988	
10	.99973	
20	.99823	
40	.99225	
60	.98324	
80	.97183	
100	.95838	

* Tabular values for density, etc., represent estimates by various workers rather than absolute values, due to the variability of water.

** Regular ice is known as "ice I". Four or more other "forms" of ice are known to exist (ice II, ice III, etc.), having densities at 1 atm. pressure ranging from 1.1595 to 1.67. These are of extremely restricted occurrence and may be ignored in most routine operations.

This ensures that ice usually forms on top of a body of water and tends to insulate the remaining water mass from further loss of heat. Did ice sink, there could be little or no carryover of aquatic life from season to season in the higher latitudes. Frazil or needle ice forms colloidally at a few thousandths of a degree below 0° C. It is adhesive and may build up on submerged objects as "anchor ice", but it is still typical ice (ice I).

1) Seasonal increase in solar radiation annually warms surface waters in summer while other factors result in winter cooling. The density differences resulting establish two classic layers: the epilimnion or surface layer, and the hypolimnion or lower layer, and in between is the thermocline or shear-plane.

2) While for certain theoretical purposes a "thermocline" is defined as a zone in which the temperature changes one degree centigrade for each meter of depth, in practice, any transitional layer between two relatively stable masses of water of different temperatures may be regarded as a thermocline.

3) Obviously the greater the temperature differences between epilimnion and hypolimnion and the sharper the gradient in the thermocline, the more stable will the situation be.

4) From information given above, it should be evident that while the temperature of the hypolimnion rarely drops much below 4° C, the epilimnion may range from 0° C upward.

5) When epilimnion and hypolimnion achieve the same temperature, stratification no longer exists. The entire body of water behaves hydrologically as a unit, and tends to assume uniform chemical and physical characteristics. Even a light breeze may then cause the entire body of water to circulate. Such events are called overturns, and usually result in water quality changes of considerable physical, chemical, and biological significance. Mineral-rich water from the hypolimnion, for example, is mixed with oxygenated water from the epilimnion. This usually triggers a sudden growth or "bloom" of plankton organisms.

6) When stratification is present, however, each layer behaves relatively independently, and significant quality differences may develop.

7) Thermal stratification as described above has no reference to the size of the water mass; it is found in oceans and puddles.

b The relative densities of the various isotopes of water influence its molecular composition. For example, the lighter O_{16} tends to go off first in the process of evaporation, leading to the relative enrichment of air by O_{16} and the enrichment of water by O_{17} and O_{18}. This can lead to a measurably higher O_{18} content in warmer climates. Also, the temperature of water in past geologic ages can be closely estimated from the ratio of O_{18} in the carbonate of mollusc shells.

c Dissolved and/or suspended solids may also affect the density of natural water masses (see Table 3)

TABLE 3
EFFECTS OF DISSOLVED SOLIDS ON DENSITY

Dissolved Solids (Grams per liter)	Density (at 4° C)
0	1.00000
1	1.00085
2	1.00169
3	1.00251
10	1.00818
35 (mean for sea water)	1.02822

d Types of density stratification

1) Density differences produce stratification which may be permanent, transient, or seasonal.

2) Permanent stratification exists for example where there is a heavy mass of brine in the deeper areas of a basin which does not respond to seasonal or other changing conditions.

3) Transient stratification may occur with the recurrent influx of tidal water in an estuary for example, or the occasional influx of cold muddy water into a deep lake or reservoir.

4) Seasonal stratification is typically thermal in nature, and involves the annual establishment of the epilimnion, hypolimnion, and thermocline as described above.

5) Density stratification is not limited to two-layered systems; three, four, or even more layers may be encountered in larger bodies of water.

e A "plunge line" (sometimes called "thermal line") may develop at the mouth of a stream. Heavier water flowing into a lake or reservoir plunges below the lighter water mass of the epiliminium to flow along at a lower level. Such a line is usually marked by an accumulation of floating debris.

f Stratification may be modified or entirely suppressed in some cases when deemed expedient, by means of a simple air lift.

3 The viscosity of water is greater at lower temperatures (see Table 4). This is important not only in situations involving the control of flowing water as in a sand filter, but also since overcoming resistance to flow generates heat, it is significant in the heating of water by internal friction from wave and current action. Living organisms more easily support themselves in the more viscous (and also denser) cold waters of the arctic than in the less viscous warm waters of the tropics. (See Table 4).

TABLE 4

VISCOSITY OF WATER (In millipoises at 1 atm)

	Dissolved solids in g/L			
Temp. ° C	0	5	10	30
-10	26.0	----	----	----
- 5	21.4	----	----	----
0	17.94	18.1	18.24	18.7
5	15.19	15.3	15.5	16.0
10	13.10	13.2	13.4	13.8
30	8.00	8.1	8.2	8.6
100	2.84	----	----	----

4 Surface tension has biological as well as physical significance. Organisms whose body surfaces cannot be wet by water can either ride on the surface film or in some instances may be "trapped" on the surface film and be unable to re-enter the water.

5 Heat or energy

Incident solar radiation is the prime source of energy for virtually all organic and most inorganic processes on earth. For the earth as a whole, the total amount (of energy) received annually must exactly balance that lost by reflection and radiation into space if climatic and related conditions are to remain relatively constant over geologic time.

a For a given body of water, immediate sources of energy include in addition to solar irradiation: terrestrial heat, transformation of kinetic energy (wave and current action) to heat, chemical and biochemical reactions, convection from the atmosphere, and condensation of water vapor.

b The proportion of light reflected depends on the angle of incidence, the temperature, color, and other qualities of the water; and the presence or absence of films of lighter liquids such as oil. In general, as the depth increases arithmetically, the light tends to decrease geometrically. Blues, greens, and yellows tend to penetrate most deeply while ultra violet, violets, and orange-reds are most quickly absorbed. On the order of 90% of the total illumination which penetrates the surface film is absorbed in the first 10 meters of even the clearest water, thus tending to warm the upper layers.

6 Water movements

a Waves or rhythmic movement

1) The best known are traveling waves caused by wind. These are effective only against objects near the surface. They have little effect on the movement of large masses of water.

2) Seiches

Standing waves or seiches occur in lakes, estuaries, and other enclosed bodies of water, but are seldom large enough to be observed. An "internal wave or seich" is an oscillation in a submersed mass of water such as a hvpolimnion, accompanied by compensating oscillation in the overlying water so that no significant change in surface level is detected. Shifts in submerged water masses of this type can have severe effects on the biota and also on human water uses where withdrawals are confined to a given depth. Descriptions and analyses of many other types and sub-types of waves and wave-like movements may be found in the literature.

b Tides

1) Tides are the longest waves known, and are responsible for the once or twice a day rythmic rise and fall of the ocean level on most shores around the world.

2) While part and parcel of the same phenomenon, it is often convenient to refer to the rise and fall of the water level as "tide," and to the resulting currents as "tidal currents."

3) Tides are basically caused by the attraction of the sun and moon on water masses, large and small; however, it is only in the oceans and possibly certain of the larger lakes that true tidal action has been demonstrated. The patterns of tidal action are enormously complicated by local topography, interaction with seiches, and other factors. The literature on tides is very large.

c Currents (except tidal currents) are steady arythmic water movements which have had major study only in oceanography although they are most often observed in rivers and streams. They are primarily concerned with the translocation of water masses. They may be generated internally by virtue of density changes, or externally by wind or terrestrial topography. Turbulence phenomena or eddy currents are largely responsible for lateral mixing in a current. These are of far more importance in the economy of a body of water than mere laminar flow.

d **Coriolis** force is a result of interaction between the rotation of the earth, and the movement of masses or bodies on the earth. The net result is a slight tendency for moving objects to veer to the right in the northern hemisphere, and to the left in the southern hemisphere. While the result in fresh waters is usually negligible, it may be considerable in marine waters. For example, other factors permitting, there is a tendency in estuaries for fresh waters to move toward the ocean faster along the right bank, while salt tidal waters tend to intrude farther inland along the left bank. Effects are even more dramatic in the open oceans.

e **Langmuir circulation** (or L. spirals) is the interlocking rotation of somewhat cylindrical masses of surface water under the influence of wind action. The axes of the cylinders are parallel to the direction of the wind.

To somewhat oversimplify the concept, a series of adjoining cells might be thought of as chains of interlocking gears in which at every other contact the teeth are rising while at the alternate contacts, they are sinking (Figure 2).

The result is elongated masses of water rising or sinking together. This produces the familiar "wind rows" of foam, flotsam and jetsam, or plankton often seen streaking windblown lakes or oceans. Certain zoo-plankton struggling to maintain a position near the surface tend to collect in the down current between two Langmuir cells, causing such an area to be called the "red dance", while the clear upwelling water between is the "blue dance".

This phenomenon may be important in water or plankton sampling on a windy day.

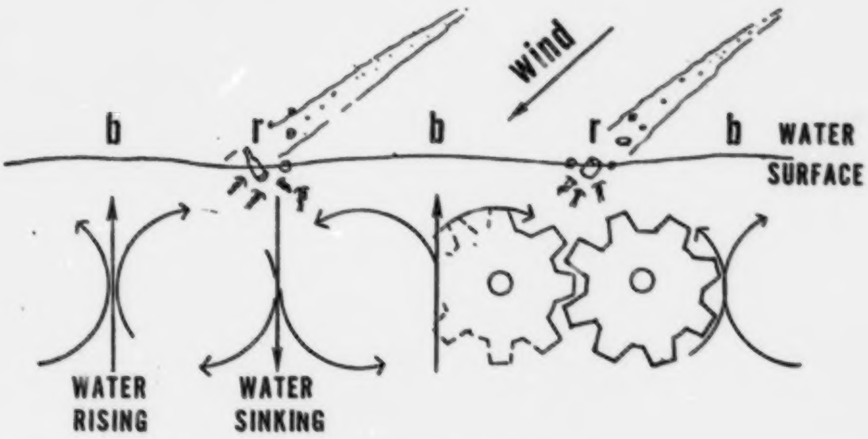

Figure 2. Langmuire Spirals
b. Blue dance, water rising. r. Red dance, water sinking, floating or swimming objects concentrated.

6 The pH of pure water has been determined between 5.7 and 7.01 by various workers. The latter value is most widely accepted at the present time. Natural waters of course vary widely according to circumstances.

C The elements of hydrology mentioned above represent a selection of some of the more conspicuous physical factors involved in working with water quality. Other items not specifically mentioned include: molecular structure of waters, interaction of water and radiation, internal pressure, acoustical characteristics, pressure-volume-temperature relationships, refractivity, luminescence, color, dielectrical characteristics and phenomena, solubility, action and interactions of gases, liquids and solids, water vapor, phenomena of hydrostatics and hydrodynamics in general.

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Part 2: The Aquatic Environment as an Ecosystem

I INTRODUCTION

Part 1 introduced the lithosphere and the hydrosphere. Part 2 will deal with certain general aspects of the biosphere, or the sphere of life on this earth, which photographs from space have shown is a finite globe in infinite space.

This is the habitat of man and the other organisms. His relationships with the aquatic biosphere are our common concern.

II THE BIOLOGICAL NATURE OF THE WORLD WE LIVE IN

A We can only imagine what this world must have been like before there was life.

B The world as we know it is largely shaped by the forces of life.

1 Primitive forms of life created organic matter and established soil.

2 Plants cover the lands and enormously influence the forces of erosion.

3 The nature and rate of erosion affect the redistribution of materials (and mass) on the surface of the earth (topographic changes).

4 Organisms tie up vast quantities of certain chemicals, such as carbon and oxygen.

5 Respiration of plants and animals releases carbon dioxide to the atmosphere in influential quantities.

6 CO_2 affects the heat transmission of the atmosphere.

C Organisms respond to and in turn affect their environment. Man is one of the most influential.

III ECOLOGY IS THE STUDY OF THE INTERRELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ORGANISMS, AND BETWEEN ORGANISMS AND THEIR ENVIRONMENT.

A The ecosystem is the basic functional unit of ecology. Any area of nature that includes living organisms and nonliving substances interacting to produce an exchange of materials between the living and nonliving parts constitutes an ecosystem. (Odum, 1959)

1 From a structural standpoint, it is convenient to recognize four constituents as composing an ecosystem (Figure 1).

a Abiotic NUTRIENT MINERALS which are the physical stuff of which living protoplasm will be synthesized.

b Autotrophic (self-nourishing) or PRODUCER organisms. These are largely the green plants (holophytes), but other minor groups must also be included (See Figure 2). They assimilate the nutrient minerals, by the use of considerable energy, and combine them into living organic substance.

c Heterotrophic (other-nourishing) CONSUMERS (holozoic), are chiefly the animals. They ingest (or eat) and digest organic matter, releasing considerable energy in the process.

d Heterotrophic REDUCERS are chiefly bacteria and fungi that return complex organic compounds back to the original abiotic mineral condition, thereby releasing the remaining chemical energy.

2 From a functional standpoint, an ecosystem has two parts (Figure 2)

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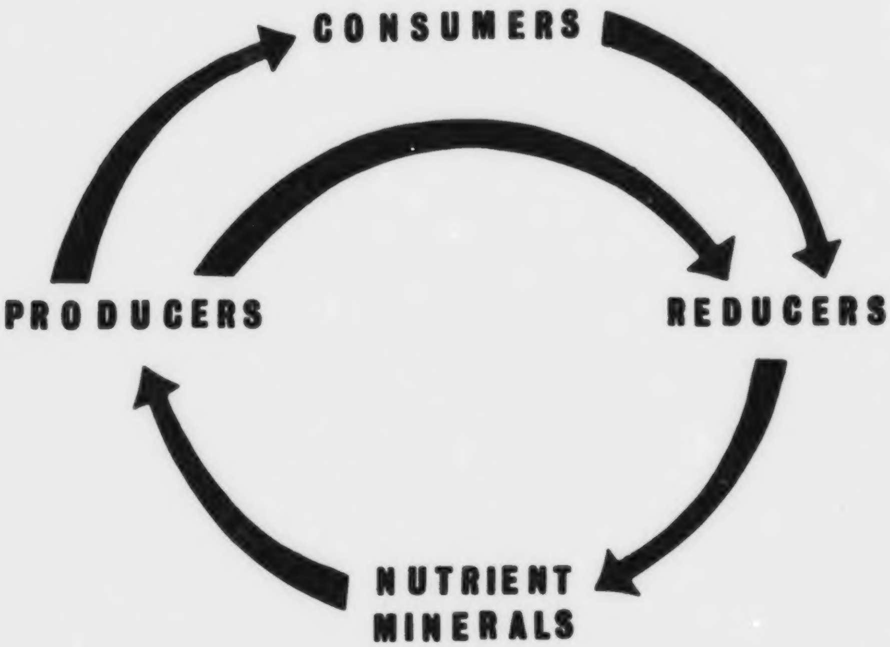


FIGURE 1

a The autotrophic or producer organisms, which construct organic substance.

b The heterotrophic or consumer and reducer organisms which destroy organic substance.

3 Unless the autotrophic and heterotrophic phases of the cycle approximate a dynamic equilibrium, the ecosystem and the environment will change.

B Each of these groups includes simple, single-celled representatives, persisting at lower levels on the evolutionary stems of the higher organisms. (Figure 2)

1 These groups span the gaps between the higher kingdoms with a multitude of transitional forms. They are collectively called the PROTISTA.

2 Within the protista, two principal subgroups can be defined on the basis of relative complexity of structure.

a The bacteria and blue-green algae, lacking a nuclear membrane may be considered as the lower protista (or Monera).

b The single-celled algae and protozoa are best referred to as the Higher Protista.

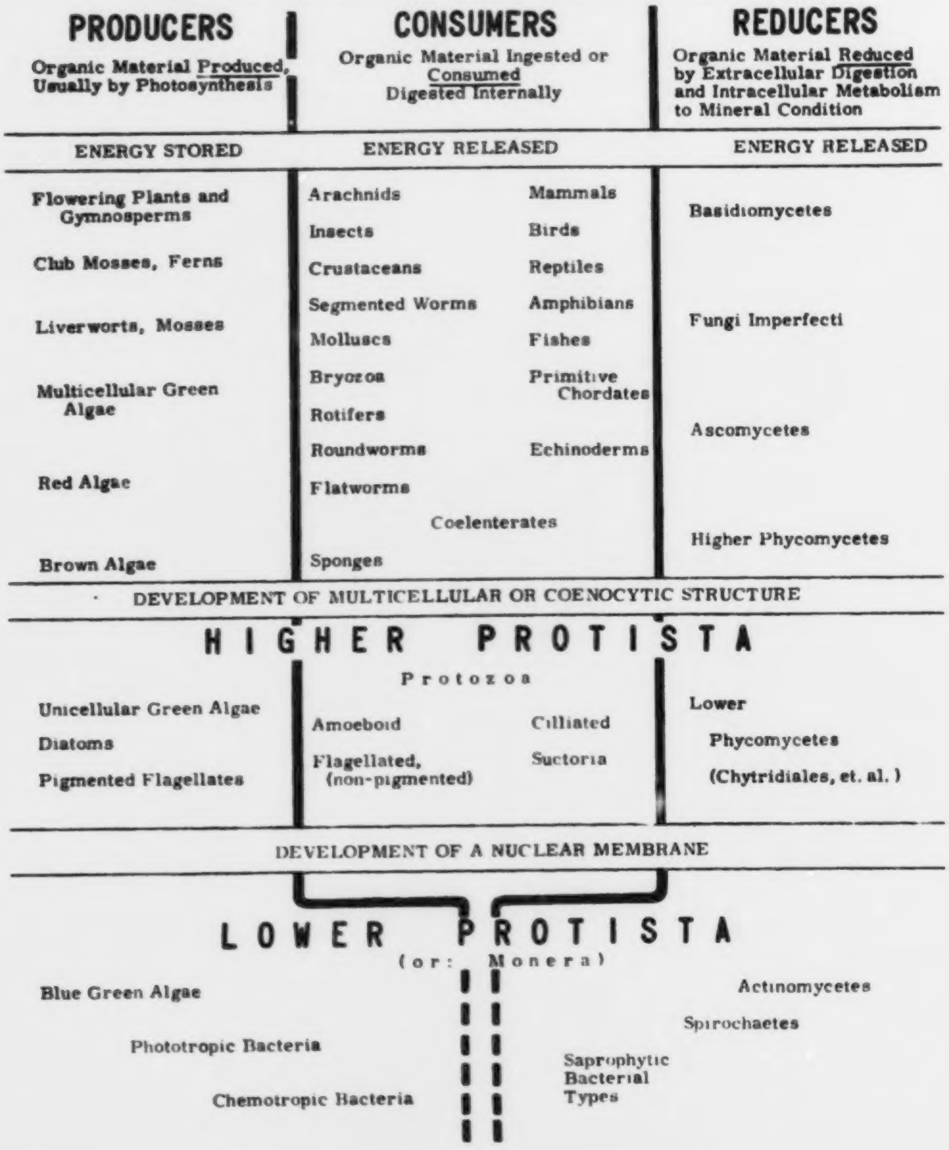
C Distributed throughout these groups will be found most of the traditional "phyla" of classic biology.

IV FUNCTIONING OF THE ECOSYSTEM

A A food chain is the transfer of food energy from plants through a series of organisms with repeated eating and being eaten. Food chains are not isolated sequences but are interconnected.

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN FREE LIVING AQUATIC ORGANISMS

Energy Flows from Left to Right, General Evolutionary Sequence is Upward



PRODUCERS	CONSUMERS		REDUCERS
Organic Material Produced, Usually by Photosynthesis	Organic Material Ingested or Consumed Digested Internally		Organic Material Reduced by Extracellular Digestion and Intracellular Metabolism to Mineral Condition
ENERGY STORED	ENERGY RELEASED		ENERGY RELEASED
Flowering Plants and Gymnosperms Club Mosses, Ferns Liverworts, Mosses Multicellular Green Algae Red Algae Brown Algae	Arachnids Insects Crustaceans Segmented Worms Molluscs Bryozoa Rotifers Roundworms Flatworms Coelenterates Sponges	Mammals Birds Reptiles Amphibians Fishes Primitive Chordates Echinoderms	Basidiomycetes Fungi Imperfecti Ascomycetes Higher Phycomycetes

DEVELOPMENT OF MULTICELLULAR OR COENOCYTIC STRUCTURE

HIGHER PROTISTA

	Protozoa		
Unicellular Green Algae Diatoms Pigmented Flagellates	Amoeboid Flagellated, (non-pigmented)	Cilliated Suctoria	Lower Phycomycetes (Chytridiales, et. al.)

DEVELOPMENT OF A NUCLEAR MEMBRANE

LOWER PROTISTA

(or: Monera)

Blue Green Algae

Phototropic Bacteria

Chemotropic Bacteria

Actinomycetes

Spirochaetes

Saprophytic Bacterial Types

FIGURE 2

Bl. ECO. pl. 2a. 1. 69

B A food web is the interlocking pattern of food chains in an ecosystem. (Figures 3, 4) In complex natural communities, organisms whose food is obtained by the same number of steps are said to belong to the same trophic (feeding) level.

C Trophic Levels

1 First - Green plants (producers) (Figure 5) fix biochemical energy and synthesize basic organic substances. This is "primary production".

2 Second - Plant eating animals (herbivores) depend on the producer organisms for food.

3 Third - Primary carnivores, animals which feed on herbivores.

4 Fourth - Secondary carnivores feed on primary carnivores.

5 Last - Ultimate carnivores are the last or ultimate level of consumers.

D Total Assimilation

The amount of energy which flows through a trophic level is distributed between the production of biomass (living substance), and the demands of respiration (internal energy use by living organisms) in a ratio of approximately 1:10.

E Trophic Structure of the Ecosystem

The interaction of the food chain phenomena (with energy loss at each transfer) results in various communities having definite trophic structure or energy levels. Trophic structure may be measured and described either in terms of the standing crop per unit area or in terms of energy fixed per unit area per unit time at successive trophic levels. Trophic structure and function can be shown graphically by means of ecological pyramids (Figure 5).

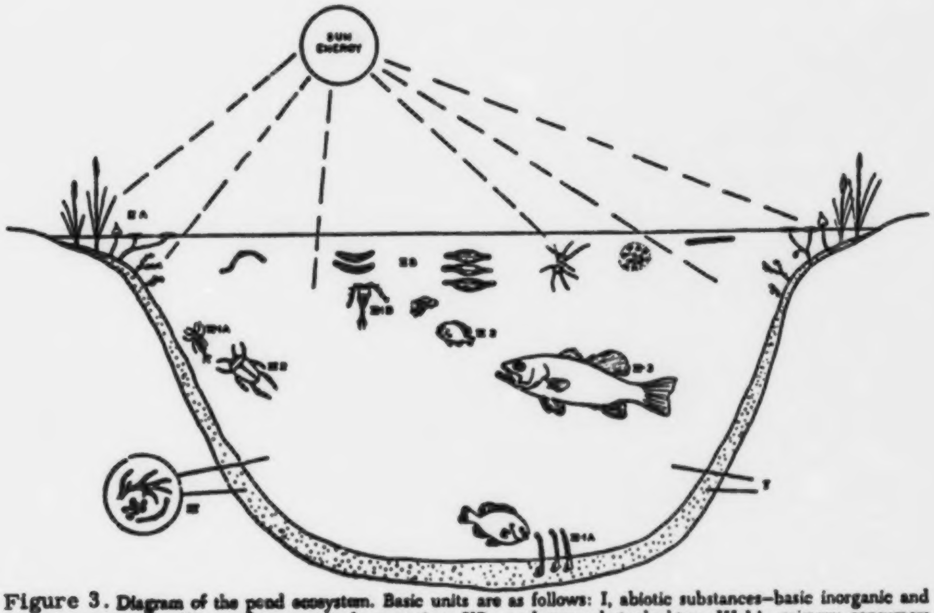


Figure 3. Diagram of the pond ecosystem. Basic units are as follows: I, abiotic substances–basic inorganic and organic compounds; IIA, producers–rooted vegetation; IIB, producers–phytoplankton; III-1A, primary consumers (herbivores)–bottom forms; III-1B, primary consumers (herbivores)–zooplankton; III-2, secondary consumers (carnivores); III-3, tertiary consumers (secondary carnivores); IV, decomposers–bacteria and fungi of decay.

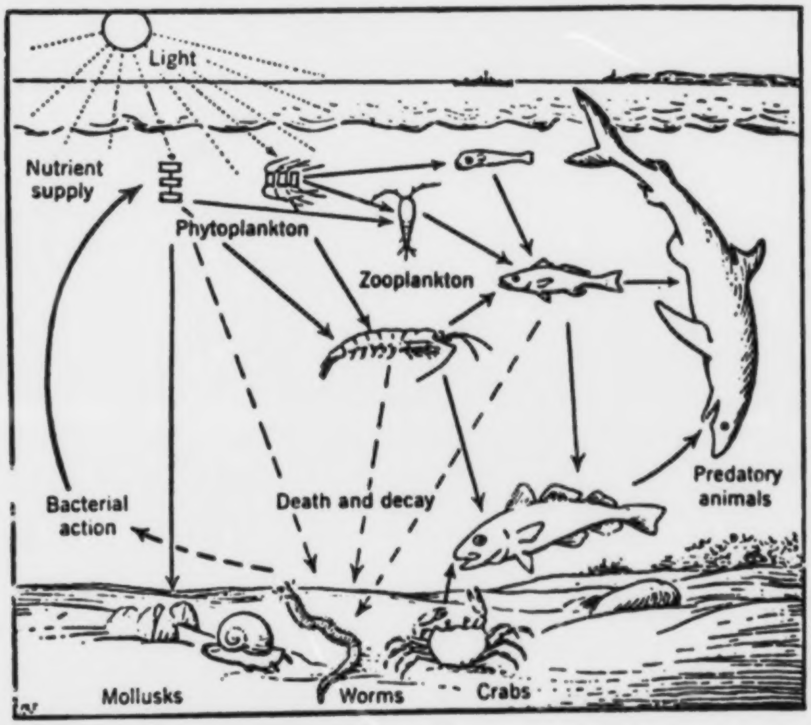

Light
Nutrient supply
Phytoplankton
Zooplankton
Predatory animals
Bacterial action
Death and decay
Mollusks
Worms
Crabs

Figure 4. A MARINE ECOSYSTEM (After Clark, 1954 and Patten, 1966)

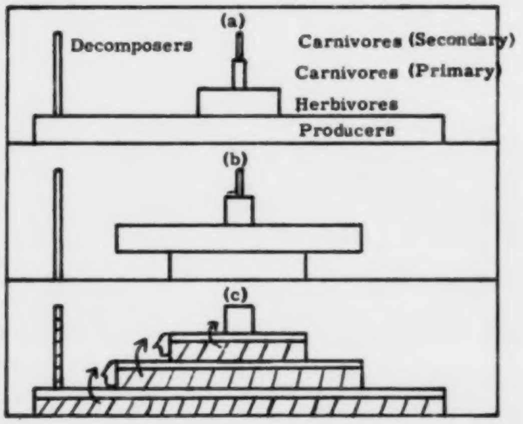


Figure 5. HYPOTHETICAL PYRAMIDS of (a) Numbers of individuals, (b) Biomass, and (c) Energy (Shading Indicates Energy Loss).

V BIOTIC COMMUNITIES

A Plankton are the macroscopic and microscopic animals, plants, bacteria, etc., floating free in the open water. Many clog filters, cause tastes, odors, and other troubles in water supplies. Eggs and larvae of larger forms are often present.

1 Phytoplankton are plant-like. These are the dominant producers of the waters, fresh and salt, "the grass of the seas".

2 Zooplankton are animal-like. Includes many different animal types, range in size from minute protozoa to gigantic marine jellyfishes.

B Periphyton (or Aufwuchs) - The communities of microscopic organisms associated with submerged surfaces of any type or depth. Includes bacteria, algae, protozoa, and other microscopic animals, and often the young or embryonic stages of algae and other organisms that normally grow up to become a part of the benthos (see below). Many planktonic types will also adhere to surfaces as periphyton, and some typical periphyton may break off and be collected as plankters.

C Benthos are the plants and animals living on, in, or closely associated with the bottom. They include plants and invertebrates.

D Nekton are the community of strong aggressive swimmers of the open waters, often called pellagic. Certain fishes, whales, and invertebrates such as shrimps and squids are included here.

E The marsh community is based on larger "higher" plants, floating and emergent. Both marine and freshwater marshes are areas of enormous biological production. Collectively known as "wetlands", they bridge the gap between the waters and the dry lands.

VI PRODUCTIVITY

A The biological resultant of all physical and chemical factors in the quantity of life that may actually be present. The ability to produce this "biomass" is often referred to as the "productivity" of a body of water. This is neither good nor bad per se. A water of low productivity is a "poor" water biologically, and also a relatively "pure" or "clean" water; hence desirable as a water supply or a bathing beach. A productive water on the other hand may be a nuisance to man or highly desirable. It is a nuisance if foul odors and/or weed-chocked waterways result, it is desirable if bumper crops of bass, catfish, or oysters are produced. Open oceans have a low level of productivity in general.

VII PERSISTENT CHEMICALS IN THE ENVIRONMENT

Increasingly complex manufacturing processes, coupled with rising industrialization, create greater amounts of exotic wastes potentially toxic to humans and aquatic life.

They may also be teratogenic (toxicants responsible for changes in the embryo with resulting birth defects, ex., thalidomide), mutagenic (insults which produce mutations, ex., radiation), or carcinogenic (insults which induce cancer, ex., benz pyrenes) in effect.

A Metals - current levels of cadmium, lead, and other substances whose effects on humans and fish and wildlife are not fully understood constitute a mounting concern. Mercury pollution, for example, has become a serious national problem, yet mercury has been present on earth since time immemorial. More research is needed, yet we dare not relax our standards until definitive answers have been provided.

B Pesticides

1 A pesticide and its metabolites may move through an ecosystem in many ways. Hard (pesticides which are persistent, having a long half-life in the environment includes the organochlorines, ex., DDT) pesticides ingested or otherwise borne by the target species will stay in the environment, possibly to be recycled or concentrated further through the natural action of food chains if the species is eaten. Most of the volume of pesticides do not reach their target at all.

2 Biological magnification

Initially, low levels of persistent pesticides in air, soil, and water may be concentrated at every step up the food chain. Minute aquatic organisms and scavengers, which screen water and bottom mud having pesticide levels of a few parts per billion, can accumulate levels measured in parts per million—a thousandfold increase. The sediments including fecal deposits are continuously recycled by the bottom animals.

a Oysters, for instance, will concentrate DDT 70,000 times higher in their tissues than it's concentration in surrounding water. They can also partially cleanse themselves in water free of DDT.

b Fish feeding on lower organisms build up concentrations in their visceral fat which may reach several thousand parts per million and levels in their edible flesh of hundreds of parts per million.

c Larger animals, such as fish-eating gulls and other birds, can further concentrate the chemicals. A survey on organochlorine residues in aquatic birds in the Canadian prairie provinces showed that California and ring-billed gulls were among the most contaminated. Since gulls breed in colonies, breeding population changes can be detected and related to levels of chemical contamination. Ecological research on colonial birds to monitor the effects of chemical pollution on the environment is useful.

C "Polychlorinated biphenyls" (PCB's). PCB's are used in plasticizers, asphalt, ink, paper, and a host of other products. Action has been taken to curtail their release to the environment, since their effects are similar to hard pesticides.

D Other compounds which are toxic and accumulate in the ecosystem:

1 Phalate esters - may interfere with pesticide analyses

2 Benzapyrenes

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Part 3. The Freshwater Environment

I INTRODUCTION

The freshwater environment as considered herein refers to those inland waters not detectably diluted by ocean waters, although the lower portions of rivers are subject to certain tidal flow effects.

Certain atypical inland waters such as saline or alkaline lakes, springs, etc., are not treated, as the main objective here in typical inland water.

All waters have certain basic biological cycles and types of interactions most of which have already been presented, hence this outline will concentrate on aspects essentially peculiar to fresh inland waters.

II PRESENT WATER QUALITY AS A FUNCTION OF THE EVOLUTION OF FRESH WATERS

A The history of a body of water determines its present condition. Natural waters have evolved in the course of geologic time into what we know today.

B Streams

In the course of their evolution, streams in general pass through four stages of development which may be called: birth, youth, maturity, and old age.

These terms or conditions may be employed or considered in two contexts: temporal, or spatial. In terms of geologic time, a given point in a stream may pass through each of the stages described below or: at any given time, these various stages of development can be loosely identified in successive reaches of a stream traveling from its headwaters to base level in ocean or major lake.

1 Establishment or birth. This might be a "dry run" or headwater stream-bed, before it had eroded down to the level of ground water.

During periods of run-off after a rain or snow-melt, such a gulley would have a flow of water which might range from torrential to a mere trickle. Erosion may proceed rapidly as there is no permanent aquatic flora or fauna to stabilize streambed materials. On the other hand, terrestrial grass or forest growth may retard erosion. When the run-off has passed, however, the "streambed" is dry.

2 Youthful streams. When the streambed is eroded below the ground water level, spring or seepage water enters, and the stream becomes permanent. An aquatic flora and fauna develops and water flows the year round. Youthful streams typically have a relatively steep gradient, rocky beds, with rapids, falls, and small pools.

3 Mature streams. Mature streams have wide valleys, a developed flood plain, are deeper, more turbid, and usually have warmer water, sand, mud, silt, or clay bottom materials which shift with increase in flow. In their more favorable reaches, streams in this condition are at a peak of biological productivity. Gradients are moderate, riffles or rapids are often separated by long pools.

4 In old age, streams have approached geologic base level, usually the ocean. During flood stage they scour their beds and deposit materials on the flood plain which may be very broad and flat. During normal flow the channel is refilled and many shifting bars are developed.

(Under the influence of man this pattern may be broken up, or temporarily interrupted. Thus an essentially "youthful" stream might take on some of the characteristics of a "mature" stream following soil erosion, organic enrichment, and increased surface runoff. Correction of these conditions might likewise be followed by at least a partial reversion to the "original" condition).

C Lakes and Reservoirs

Geological factors which significantly affect the nature of either a stream or lake include the following:

1 The geographical location of the drainage basin or watershed.

2 The size and shape of the drainage basin.

3 The general topography, i.e., mountainous or plains.

4 The character of the bedrocks and soils.

5 The character, amount, annual distribution, and rate of precipitation.

6 The natural vegetative cover of the land is, of course, responsive to and responsible for many of the above factors and is also severely subject to the whims of civilization. This is one of the major factors determining run-off versus soil absorption, etc.

D Lakes have a developmental history which somewhat parallels that of streams. This process is often referred to as natural eutrophication.

1 The methods of formation vary greatly, but all influence the character and subsequent history of the lake.

In glaciated areas, for example, a huge block of ice may have been covered with till. The glacier retreated, the ice melted, and the resulting hole became a lake. Or, the glacier may actually scoop out a hole. Landslides may dam valleys, extinct volcanoes may collapse, etc., etc.

2 Maturing or natural eutrophication of lakes.

a If not already present shoal areas are developed through erosion and deposition of the shore material by wave action and undertow.

b Currents produce bars across bays and thus cut off irregular areas.

c Silt brought in by tributary streams settles out in the quiet lake water

d Algae grow attached to surfaces, and floating free as plankton. Dead organic matter begins to accumulate on the bottom.

e Rooted aquatic plants grow on shoals and bars, and in doing so cut off bays and contribute to the filling of the lake.

f Dissolved carbonates and other materials are precipitated in the deeper portions of the lake in part through the action of plants.

g When filling is well advanced, mats of sphagnum moss may extend outward from the shore. These mats are followed by sedges and grasses which finally convert the lake into a marsh.

3 Extinction of lakes. After lakes reach maturity, their progress toward filling up is accelerated. They become extinct through:

a The downcutting of the outlet.

b Filling with detritus eroded from the shores or brought in by tributary streams.

c Filling by the accumulation of the remains of vegetable materials growing in the lake itself. (Often two or three processes may act concurrently)

III PRODUCTIVITY IN FRESH WATERS

A Fresh waters in general and under natural conditions by definition have a lesser supply of dissolved substances than marine waters, and thus a lesser basic potential for the growth of aquatic organisms. By the same token, they may be said to be more sensitive to the addition of extraneous materials (pollutants, nutrients, etc.) The following notes are directed toward natural geological and other environmental factors as they affect the productivity of fresh waters.

B Factors Affecting Stream Productivity (See Table 1)

TABLE 1

EFFECT OF SUBSTRATE ON STREAM PRODUCTIVITY*

(The productivity of sand bottoms is taken as 1)

Bottom Material	Relative Productivity
Sand	1
Marl	6
Fine Gravel	9
Gravel and silt	14
Coarse gravel	32
Moss on fine gravel	89
Fissidens (moss) on coarse gravel	111
Ranunculus (water buttercup)	194
Watercress	301
Anacharis (waterweed)	452

*Selected from Tarzwell 1937

To be productive of aquatic life, a stream must provide adequate nutrients, light, a suitable temperature, and time for growth to take place.

1 Youthful streams, especially on rock or sand substrates are low in essential nutrients. Temperatures in mountainous regions are usually low, and due to the steep gradient, time for growth is short. Although ample light is available, growth of true plankton is thus greatly limited.

2 As the stream flows toward a more "mature" condition, nutrients tend to accumulate, and gradient diminishes and so time of flow increases, temperature tends to increase, and plankton flourish.

Should a heavy load of inert silt develop on the other hand, the turbidity would reduce the light penetration and consequently the general plankton production would diminish.

3 As the stream approaches base level (old age) and the time available for plankton growth increases, the balance between turbidity, nutrient levels, and temperature and other seasonal conditions, determines the overall productivity.

C Factors Affecting the Productivity of lakes (See Table 2)

1 The size, shape, and depth of the lake basin. Shallow water is more productive than deeper water since more light will reach the bottom to stimulate rooted plant growth. As a corollary, lakes with more shoreline, having more shallow water, are in general more productive. Broad shallow lakes and reservoirs have the greatest production potential (and hence should be avoided for water supplies).

TABLE 2

EFFECT OF SUBSTRATE ON LAKE PRODUCTIVITY *

(The productivity of sand bottoms is taken as 1)

Bottom Material	Relative Productivity
Sand	1
Pebbles	4
Clay	8
Flat rubble	9
Block rubble	11
Shelving rock	77

* Selected from Tarzwell 1937

2 Hard waters are generally more productive than soft waters as there are more plant nutrient minerals available. This is often greatly influenced by the character of the soil and rocks in the watershed and the quality and quantity of ground water entering the lake. In general, pH ranges of 6.8 to 8.2 appear to be most productive.

3 Turbidity reduces productivity as light penetration is reduced.

4 The presence or absence of thermal stratification with its semi-annual turnovers affects productivity by distributing nutrients throughout the water mass.

5 Climate, temperature, prevalence of ice and snow, are also of course important.

D Factors Affecting the Productivity of Reservoirs

1 The productivity of reservoirs is governed by much the same principles as that of lakes, with the difference that the water level is much more under the control of man. Fluctuations in water level can be used to deliberately increase or decrease productivity. This can be demonstrated by a comparison of the TVA reservoirs which practice a summer drawdown with some of those in the west where a winter drawdown is the rule.

2 The level at which water is removed from a reservoir is important to the productivity of the stream below. The hypolimnion may be anaerobic while the epilimnion is aerobic, for example, or the epilimnion is poor in nutrients while the hypolimnion is relatively rich.

3 Reservoir discharges also profoundly affect the DO, temperature, and turbidity in the stream below a dam. Too much fluctuation in flow may permit sections of the stream to dry, or provide inadequate dilution for toxic waste.

IV CULTURAL EUTROPHICATION

A The general processes of natural eutrophication, or natural enrichment and productivity have been briefly outlined above.

B When the activities of man speed up these enrichment processes by introducing unnatural quantities of nutrients (sewage, etc.) the result is often called cultural eutrophication. This term is often extended beyond its original usage to include the enrichment (pollution) of streams, estuaries, and even oceans, as well as lakes.

V CLASSIFICATION OF LAKES AND RESERVOIRS

A The productivity of lakes and impoundments is such a conspicuous feature that it is often used as a convenient means of classification.

1 Oligotrophic lakes are the younger, less productive lakes, which are deep, have clear water, and usually support Salmonoid fishes in their deeper waters.

2 Eutrophic lakes are more mature, more turbid, and richer. They are usually shallower. They are richer in dissolved solids; N, P, and Ca are abundant. Plankton is abundant and there is often a rich bottom fauna.

3 Dystrophic lakes, such as bog lakes, are low in Ph, water yellow to brown, dissolved solids, N, P, and Ca scanty but humic materials abundant, bottom fauna and plankton poor, and fish species are limited.

B Reservoirs may also be classified as storage, and run of the river.

1 Storage reservoirs have a large volume in relation to their inflow.

2 Run of the river reservoirs have a large flow-through in relation to their storage value.

C According to location, lakes and reservoirs may be classified as polar, temperate, or tropical. Differences in climatic and geographic conditions result in differences in their biology.

VI SUMMARY

A A body of water such as a lake, stream, or estuary represents an intricately balanced system in a state of dynamic equilibrium. Modification imposed at one point in the system automatically results in compensatory adjustments at associated points.

B The more thorough our knowledge of the entire system, the better we can judge where to impose control measures to achieve a desired result.

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Part 4. The Marine Environment and its Role in the Total Aquatic Environment

I INTRODUCTION

A The marine environment is arbitrarily defined as the water mass extending beyond the continental land masses, including the plants and animals harbored therein. This water mass is large and deep, covering about 70 percent of the earth's surface and being as deep as 7 miles. The salt content averages about 35 parts per thousand. Life extends to all depths.

B The general nature of the water cycle on earth is well known. Because the largest portion of the surface area of the earth is covered with water, roughly 70 percent of the earth's rainfall is on the seas. (Figure 1)

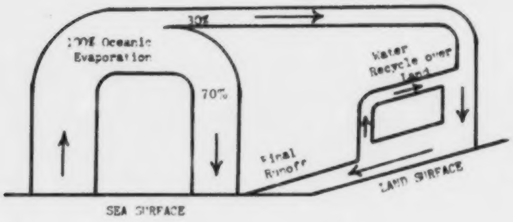

Figure 1. THE WATER CYCLE

Since roughly one third of the rain which falls on the land is again recycled through the atmosphere (see Figure 1 again), the total amount of water washing over the earth's surface is significantly greater than one third of the total world rainfall. It is thus not surprising to note that the rivers which finally empty into the sea carry a disproportionate burden of dissolved and suspended solids picked up from the land. The chemical composition of this burden depends on the composition of the rocks and soils through which the river flows, the proximity of an ocean, the direction of prevailing winds, and other factors. This is the substance of geological erosion. (Table 1)

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE COMPOSITION OF THE MAJOR IONS OF TWO STREAMS AND SEA WATER

(Data from Clark, F.W., 1924, "The Composition of River and Lake Waters of the United States", U.S. Geol. Surv., Prof. Paper No. 135; Harvey, H.W., 1957, "The Chemistry and Fertility of Sea Waters", Cambridge University Press, Cambridge)

Ion	Delaware River at Lambertville, N.J.	Rio Grande at Laredo, Texas	Sea Water
Na	6.70	14.78	30.4
K	1.46	.85	1.1
Ca	17.49	13.73	1.16
Mg	4.81	3.03	3.7
Cl	4.23	21.65	55.2
SO_4	17.49	30.10	7.7
CO_3	32.95	11.55	+HCO_3 0.35

C For this presentation, the marine environment will be (1) described using an ecological approach, (2) characterized ecologically by comparing it with freshwater and estuarine environments, and (3) considered as a functional ecological system (ecosystem).

II FRESHWATER, ESTUARINE, AND MARINE ENVIRONMENTS

Distinct differences are found in physical, chemical, and biotic factors in going from a freshwater to an oceanic environment. In general, environmental factors are more constant in freshwater (rivers) and oceanic environments than in the highly variable and harsh environments of estuarine and coastal waters. (Figure 2)

A Physical and Chemical Factors

Rivers, estuaries, and oceans are compared in Figure 2 with reference to the relative instability (or variation) of several important parameters. In the oceans, it will be noted, very little change occurs in any parameter. In rivers, while "salinity" (usually referred to as "dissolved solids") and temperature (accepting normal seasonal variations) change little, the other four parameters vary considerably. In estuaries, they all change.

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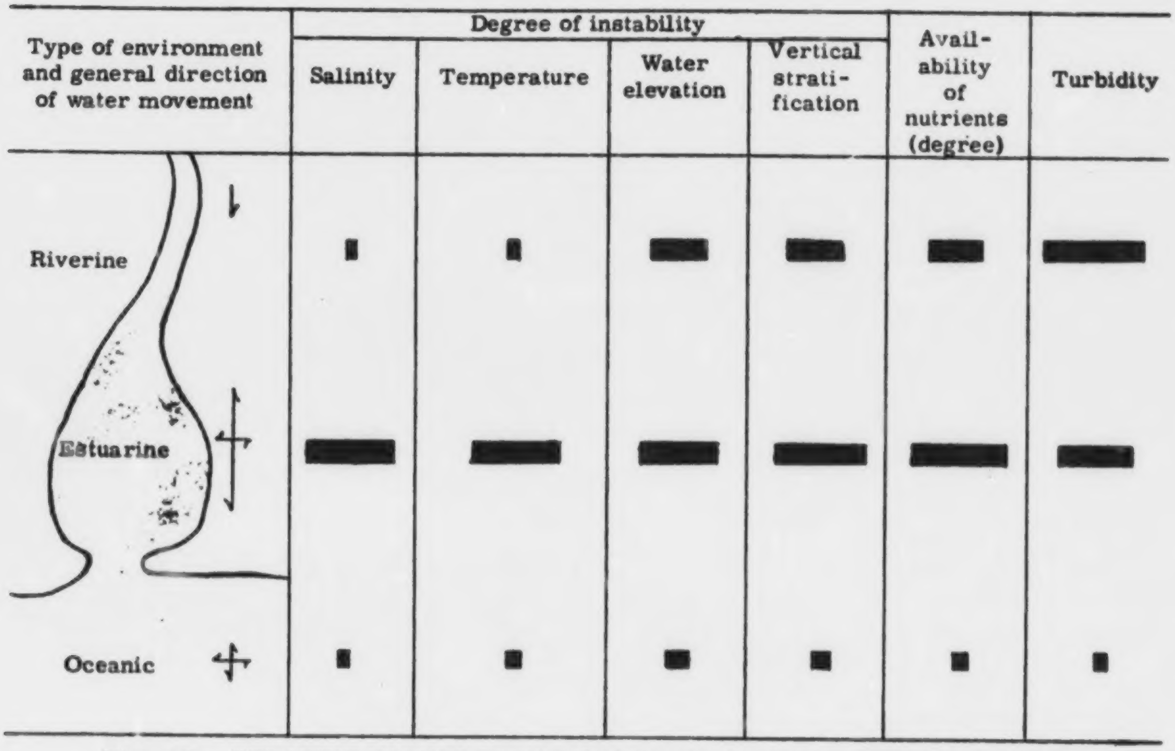

Figure 2. RELATIVE VALUES OF VARIOUS PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL FACTORS FOR RIVER, ESTUARINE, AND OCEANIC ENVIRONMENTS

B Biotic Factors

1 A complex of physical and chemical factors determine the biotic composition of an environment. In general, the number of species in a rigorous, highly variable environment tends to be less than the number in a more stable environment (Hedgpeth, 1966).

2 The dominant animal species (in terms of total biomass) which occur in estuaries are often transient, spending only a part of their lives in the estuaries. This results in better utilization of a rich environment.

C Zones of the Sea

The nearshore environment is often classified in relation to tide level and water depth. The nearshore and offshore oceanic regions together, are often classified with reference to light penetration and water depth. (Figure 3)

1 Neritic - Relatively shallow-water zone which extends from the high-tide mark to the edge of the continental shelf.

MARINE ECOLOGY

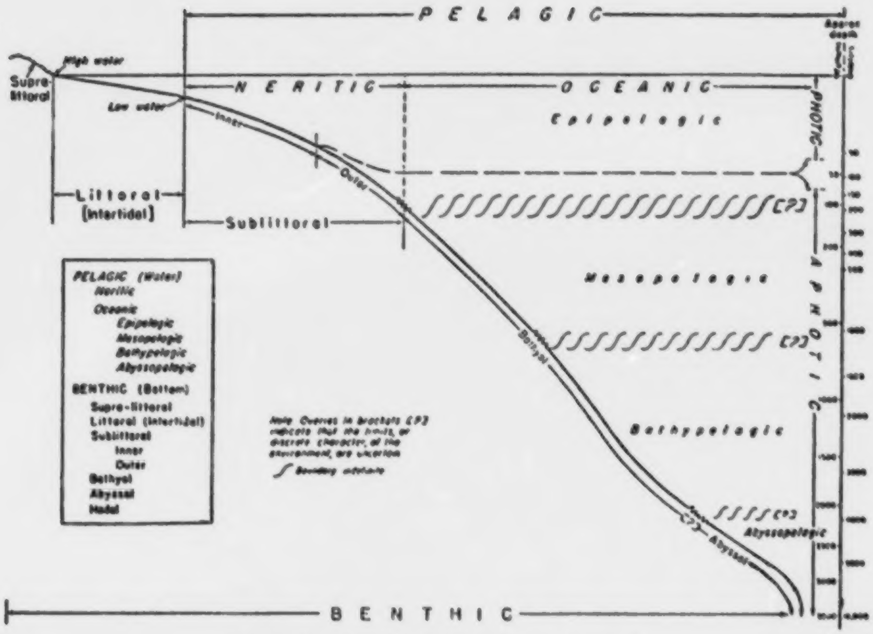
PELAGIC
High water
Supra-littoral
Low water
NERITIC
OCEANIC
Epipelagic
PHOTIC
Inner
Outer
Littoral
[Intertidal]
Sublittoral
[?]
Mesopelagic
APHOTIC
Bathyal
[?]
Bathypelagic
[?]
Abyssopelagic
[?]
Abyssal
Approx depth
PELAGIC (Water)
Neritic
Oceanic
Epipelagic
Mesopelagic
Bathypelagic
Abyssopelagic
BENTHIC (Bottom)
Supra-littoral
Littoral (Intertidal)
Sublittoral
Inner
Outer
Bathyal
Abyssal
Hadal
Note: Queries in brackets [?] indicate that the limits, or discrete character, of the environment, are uncertain
Boundary indefinite
BENTHIC

FIGURE 3—*Classification of marine environments*

a Stability of physical factors is intermediate between estuarine and oceanic environments.

b Phytoplankters are the dominant producers but in some locations attached algae are also important as producers.

c The animal consumers are zooplankton, nekton, and benthic forms.

2 Oceanic - The region of the ocean beyond the continental shelf. Divided into three parts, all relatively poorly populated compared to the neritic zone.

a Euphotic zone - Waters into which sunlight penetrates (often to the bottom in the neritic zone). The zone of primary productivity often extends to 600 feet below the surface.

1) Physical factors fluctuate less than in the neritic zone.

2) Producers are the phytoplankton and consumers are the zooplankton and nekton.

b Bathyal zone - From the bottom of the euphotic zone to about 2000 meters.

1) Physical factors relatively constant but light is absent.

2) Producers are absent and consumers are scarce.

c Abyssal zone All the sea below the bathyal zone.

1) Physical factors more constant than in bathyal zone.

2) Producers absent and consumers even less abundant than in the bathyal zone.

III SEA WATER AND THE BODY FLUIDS

A Sea water is a remarkably suitable environment for living cells, as it contains all of the chemical elements essential to the growth and maintenance of plants and animals. The ratio and often the concentration of the major salts of sea water are strikingly similar in the cytoplasm and body fluids of marine organisms. This similarity is also evident, although modified somewhat in the body fluids of fresh water and terrestrial animals. For example, sterile sea water may be used in emergencies as a substitute for blood plasma in man.

B Since marine organisms have an internal salt content similar to that of their surrounding medium (isotonic condition) osmoregulation poses no problem. On the other hand, fresh water organisms are hypertonic (osmotic pressure of body fluids is higher than that of the surrounding water). Hence, fresh water animals must constantly expend more energy to keep water out (i.e., high osmotic pressure fluids contain more salts, the action being then to dilute this concentration with more water).

1 Generally, marine invertebrates are narrowly poikilosmotic, i.e., the salt concentration of the body fluids changes with that of the external medium. This has special significance in estuarine situations where salt concentrations of the water often vary considerably in short periods of time.

2 Marine bony fish (teleosts) have lower salt content internally than the external environment (hypotonic). In order to prevent dehydration, water is ingested and salts are excreted through special cells in the gills.

IV FACTORS AFFECTING THE DISTRIBUTION OF MARINE AND ESTUARINE ORGANISMS

A Salinity. Salinity is the single most constant and controlling factor in the marine environment, probably followed by temperature. It ranges around 35,000 mg. per liter, or "35 parts per thousand" (symbol: 35‰) in the language of the oceanographer. While variations in the open ocean are relatively small, salinity decreases rapidly as one approaches shore and proceeds through the estuary and up into fresh water with a salinity of "0 ‰ (see Figure 2)

B Salinity and temperature as limiting factors in ecological distribution.

1 Organisms differ in the salinities and temperatures in which they prefer to live, and in the variabilities of these parameters which they can tolerate. These preferences and tolerances often change with successive life history stages, and in turn often dictate where the organisms live: their "distribution."

2 These requirements or preferences often lead to extensive migrations of various species for breeding, feeding, and growing stages. One very important result of this is that an estuarine environment is an absolute necessity for over half of all coastal commercial and sport related species of fishes and invertebrates, for either all or certain portions of their life histories. (Part V, figure 8)

3 The Greek word roots "eury" (meaning wide) and "steno" (meaning narrow) are customarily combined with such words as "haline" for salt, and "thermal" for temperature, to give us "euryhaline" as an adjective to characterize an organism able to tolerate a wide range of salinity, for example; or "stenothermal" meaning one which cannot stand much change in temperature. "Meso-" is a prefix indicating an intermediate capacity.

C Marine, estuarine, and fresh water organisms. (See Figure 4)

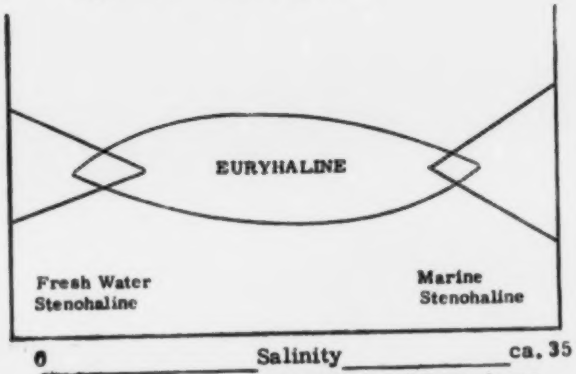

Figure 4. Salinity Tolerance of Organisms

1 Offshore marine organisms are, in general, both stenohaline and stenothermal unless, as noted above, they have certain life history requirements for estuarine conditions.

2 Fresh water organisms are also stenohaline, and (except for seasonal adaptation) meso- or stenothermal. (Figure 2)

3 Indigenous or native estuarine species that normally spend their entire lives in the estuary are relatively few in number. (See Figure 5). They are generally meso- or euryhaline and meso- or eurythermal.

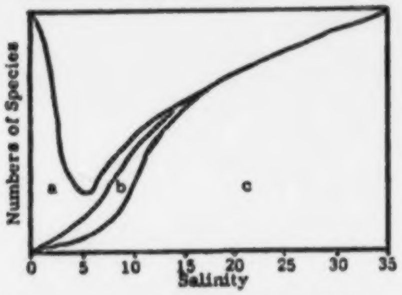

Figure 5. DISTRIBUTION OF ORGANISMS IN AN ESTUARY

a Euryhaline, freshwater
b Indigenous, estuarine, (mesohaline)
c Euryhaline, marine

4 Some well known and interesting examples of migratory species which change their environmental preferences with the life history stage include the shrimp (mentioned above), striped bass, many herrings and relatives, the salmons, and many others. None are more dramatic than the salmon hordes which lay their eggs in freshwater streams, migrate far out to sea to feed and grow, then return to the stream where they hatched to lay their own eggs before dying.

5 Among euryhaline animals landlocked (trapped), populations living in lowered salinities often have a smaller maximum size than individuals of the same species living in more saline waters. For example, the lamprey (Petromyzon marinus) attains a length of 30 - 36" in the sea, while in the Great Lakes the length is 18 - 24".

Usually the larvae of aquatic organisms are more sensitive to changes in salinity than are the adults. This characteristic both limits and dictates the distribution and size of populations.

D The effects of tides on organisms.

1 Tidal fluctuations probably subject the benthic or intertidal populations to the most extreme and rapid variations of environmental stress encountered in any aquatic habitat. Highly specialized communities have developed in this zone, some adapted to the rocky surf zones of the open coast, others to the muddy inlets of protected estuaries. Tidal reaches of fresh water rivers, sandy beaches, coral reefs and mangrove swamps in the tropics; all have their own floras and faunas. All must emerge and flourish when whatever water there is rises and covers or tears at them, all must collapse or retract to endure drying, blazing tropical sun, or freezing arctic ice during the low tide interval. Such a community is depicted in Figure 6.

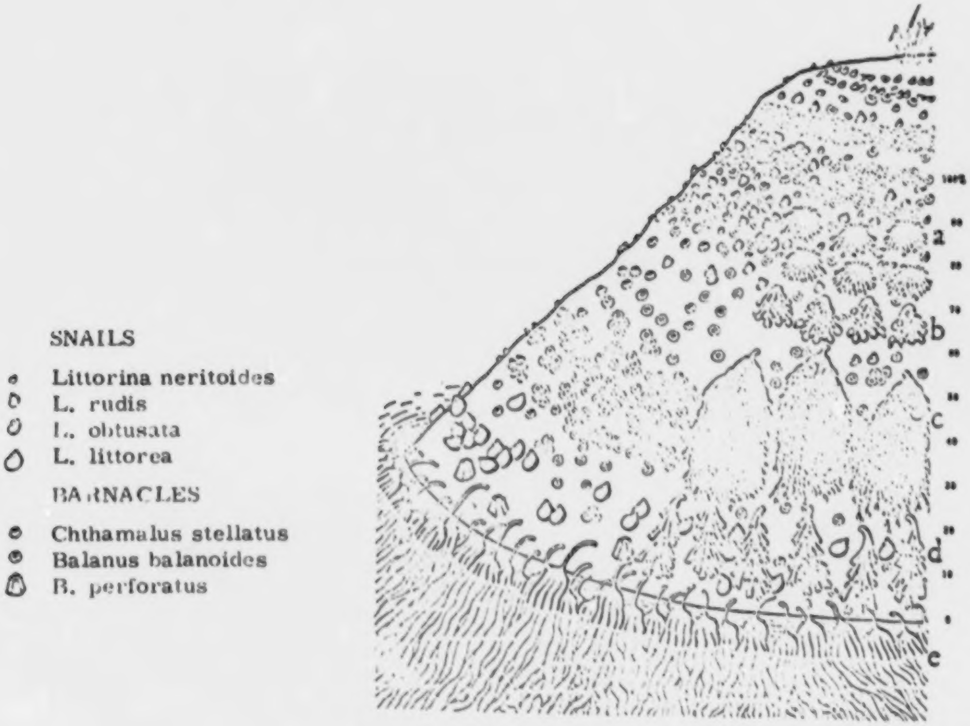
SNAILS
Littorina neritoides
L. rudis
L. obtusata
L. littorea
BARNACLES
Chthamalus stellatus
Balanus balanoides
B. perforatus
a
b
c
d
e

Figure 6

Zonation of plants, snails, and barnacles on a rocky shore. While this diagram is based on the situation on the southwest coast of England, the general idea of zonation may be applied to any temperate rocky ocean shore, though the species will differ. The gray zone consists largely of lichens. At the left is the zonation of rocks with exposure too extreme to support algae; at the right, on a less exposed situation, the animals are mostly obscured by the algae. Figures at the right hand margin refer to the percent of time that the zone is exposed to the air, i.e., the time that the tide is out. Three major zones can be recognized: the Littorina zone (above the gray zone); the Balanoid zone (between the gray zone and the laminarias); and the Laminaria zone. a. Pelvetia canaliculata; b. Fucus spiralis; c. Ascophyllum nodosum; d. Fucus serratus; e. Laminaria digitata. (Based on Stephenson)

V FACTORS AFFECTING THE PRODUCTIVITY OF THE MARINE ENVIRONMENT

A The sea is in continuous circulation. Without circulation, nutrients of the ocean would eventually become a part of the bottom and biological production would cease. Generally, in all oceans there exists a warm surface layer which overlies the colder water and forms a two-layer system of persistent stability. Nutrient concentration is usually greatest in the lower zone. Wherever a mixing or disturbance of these two layers occurs biological production is greatest.

B The estuaries are also a mixing zone of enormous importance. Here the fertility washed off the land is mingled with the nutrient capacity of seawater, and many of the would's most productive waters result.

C When man adds his cultural contributions of sewage, fertilizer, silt or toxic waste, it is no wonder that the dynamic equilibrium of the ages is rudely upset, and the environmentalist cries, "See what man hath wrought"!

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Part 5: Wetlands

I INTRODUCTION

A Broadly defined, wetlands are areas which are "to wet to plough but too thick to flow." The soil tends to be saturated with water, salt or fresh, and numerous channels or ponds of shallow or open water are common. Due to ecological features too numerous and variable to list here, they comprise in general a rigorous (highly stressed) habitat, occupied by a small relatively specialized indigenous (native) flora and fauna.

B They are prodigiously productive however, and many constitute an absolutely essential habitat for some portion of the life history of animal forms generally recognized as residents of other habitats (Figure 8). This is particularly true of tidal marshes as mentioned below.

C Wetlands in toto comprise a remarkably large proportion of the earth's surface, and the total organic carbon bound in their mass constitutes an enormous sink of energy.

D Since our main concern here is with the "aquatic" environment, primary emphasis will be directed toward a description of wetlands as the transitional zone between the waters and the land, and how their desecration by human culture spreads degradation in both directions.

II TIDAL MARSHES AND THE ESTUARY

A "There is no other case in nature, save in the coral reefs, where the adjustment of organic relations to physical condition is seen in such a beautiful way as the balance between the growing marshes and the tidal streams by which they are at once nourished and worn away." (Shaler, 1886)

B Estuarine pollution studies are usually devoted to the dynamics of the circulating water, its chemical, physical, and biological parameters, bottom deposits, etc.

C It is easy to overlook the intimate relationships which exist between the bordering marshland, the moving waters, the tidal flats, subtidal deposition, and seston whether of local, oceanic, or riverine origin.

D The tidal marsh (some inland areas also have salt marshes) is generally considered to be the marginal areas of estuaries and coasts in the intertidal zone, which are dominated by emergent vegetation. They generally extend inland to the farthest point reached by the spring tides, where they merge into freshwater swamps and marshes (Figure 1). They may range in width from nonexistent on rocky coasts to many kilometers.

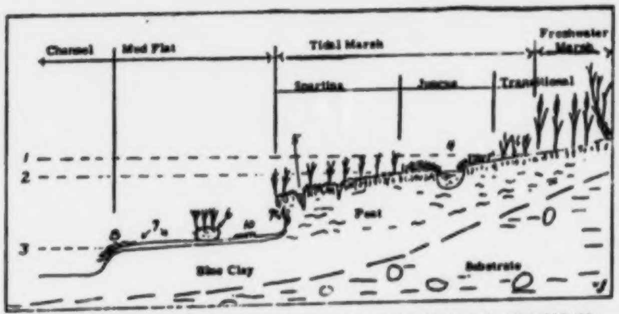

Figure 1. Zonation in a positive New England estuary. 1. Spring tide level, 2. Mean high tide, 3. Mean low tide, 4. Bog hole, 5. Ice cleavage pool, 6. Chunk of *Spartina* turf deposited by ice, 7. Organic ooze with associated community, 8. eelgrass (*Zostera*), 9. Ribbed mussels (modiolus)-clam (*mya*) - mud snail (*Nassa*) community. 10. Sea lettuce (*Ulva*)

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III MARSH ORIGINS AND STRUCTURES

A In general, marsh substrates are high in organic content, relatively low in minerals and trace elements. The upper layers bound together with living roots called turf, underlaid by more compacted peat type material.

1 Rising or eroding coastlines may expose peat from ancient marsh growth to wave action which cuts into the soft peat rapidly (Figure 2). Such banks are likely to be cliff-like, and are often undercut. Chunks of peat are often found lying about on harder substrate below high tide line. If face of cliff is well above high water, overlying vegetation is likely to be typically terrestrial of the area. Marsh type vegetation is probably absent.

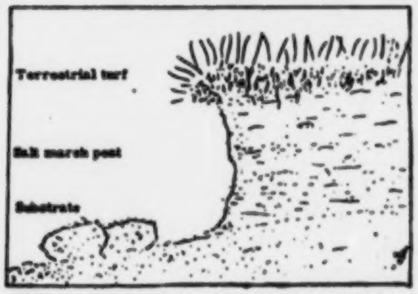


Figure 2. Diagrammatic section of eroding peat cliff

2 Low lying deltaic, or sinking coastlines, or those with low energy wave action are likely to have active marsh formation in progress. Sand dunes are also common in such areas (Figure 3). General coastal configuration is a factor.

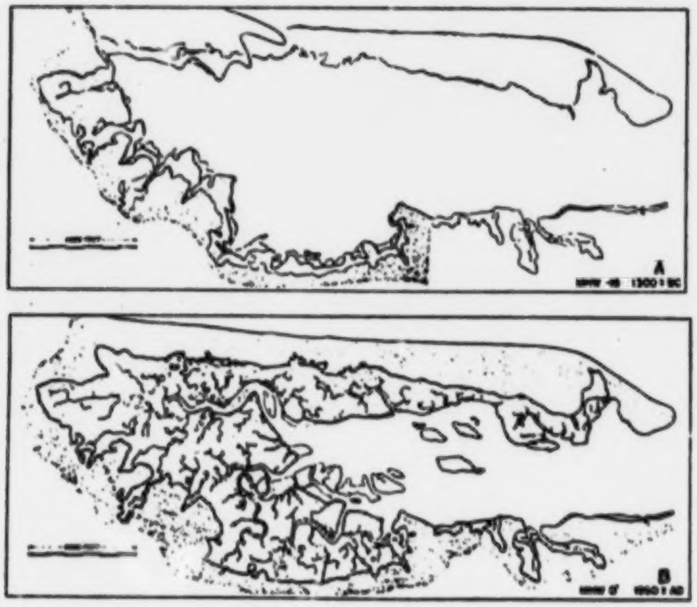


Figure 3

Development of a Massachusetts Marsh since 1300 BC, involving an 18 foot rise in water level. Shaded area indicates sand dunes. Note meandering marsh tidal drainage. A: 1300 BC, B: 1950 AD.

a Rugged or precipitous coasts or slowly rising coasts, typically exhibit narrow shelves, sea cliffs, fjords, massive beaches, and relatively less marsh area (Figure 4). An Alaskan fjord subject to recent catastrophic subsidence and rapid deposition of glacial flour shows evidence of the recent encroachment of saline waters in the presence of recently buried trees and other terrestrial vegetation, exposure of layers of salt marsh peat along the edges of channels, and a poorly compacted young marsh turf developing at the new high water level (Figure 5).

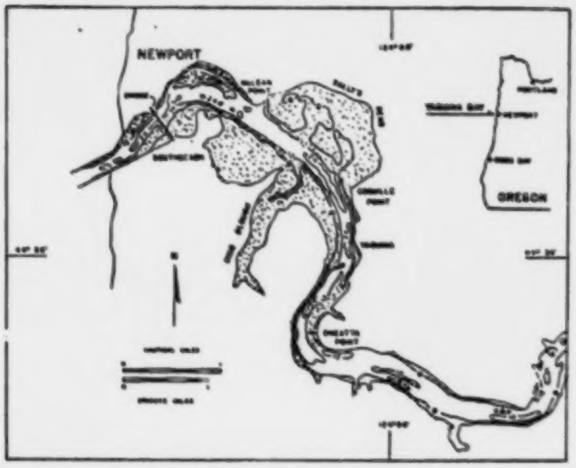


Figure 4 A River Mouth on a Slowly Rising Coast. Note absence of deltaic development and relatively little marshland, although mud flats stippled are extensive.

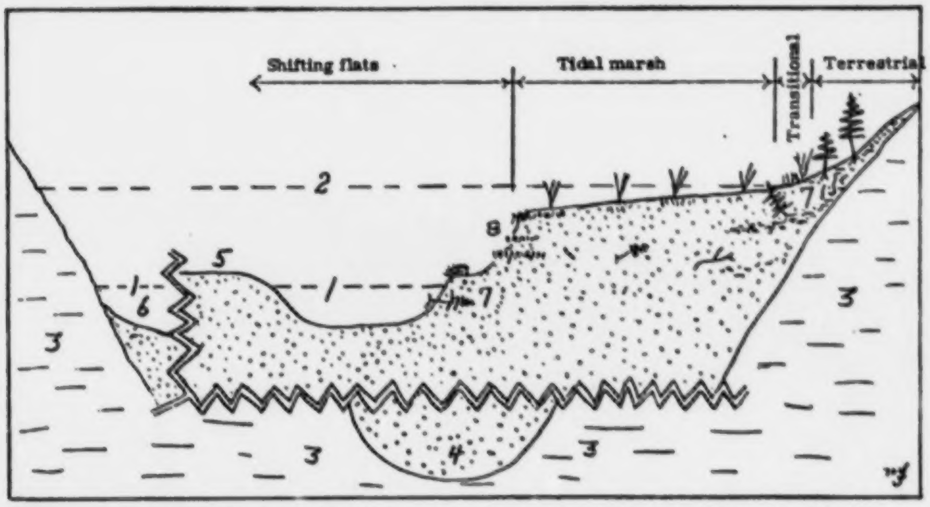


Figure 5 Some general relationships in a northern fjord with a rising water level. 1. mean low water, 2. maximum high tide, 3. Bedrock, 4. Glacial flour to depths in excess of 400 meters, 5. Shifting flats and channels, 6. Channel against bedrock, 7. Buried terrestrial vegetation, 8. Outcroppings of salt marsh peat.

b Low lying coastal plains tend to be fringed by barrier islands, broad estuaries and deltas, and broad associated marshlands (Figure 3). Deep tidal channels fan out through innumerable branching and often interconnecting rivulets. The intervening grassy plains are essentially at mean high tide level.

c Tropical and subtropical regions such as Florida, the Gulf Coast, and Central America, are frequented by mangrove swamps. This unique type of growth is able to establish itself in shallow water and move out into progressively deeper areas (Figure 6). The strong deeply embedded roots enable the mangrove to resist considerable wave action at times, and the tangle of roots quickly accumulates a deep layer of organic sediment. Mangroves in the south may be considered to be roughly the equivalent of the Spartina marsh grass in the north as a land builder. When fully developed, a mangrove swamp is an impenetrable thicket of roots over the tidal flat affording shelter to an assortment of semi-aquatic organisms such as various molluscs and crustaceans, and providing access from the nearby land to predaceous birds, reptiles, and mammals. Mangroves are not restricted to estuaries, but may develop out into shallow oceanic lagoons, or upstream into relatively fresh waters.

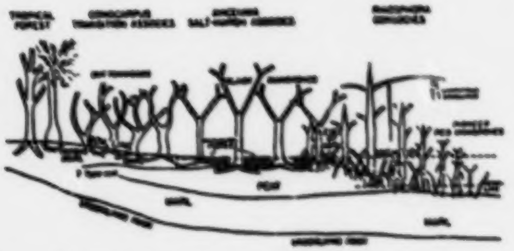


Figure 6 Diagrammatic transect of a mangrove swamp showing transition from marine to terrestrial habitat.

IV PRODUCTIVITY OF WETLANDS

A Measuring the productivity of grasslands is not easy, because today grass is seldom used directly as such by man. It is thus usually expressed as production of meat, milk, or in the case of salt marshes, the total crop of animals that obtain food per unit of area. The primary producer in a tidal marsh is the marsh grass, but very little of it is used by man as grass. (Table 1)

The nutritional analysis of several marsh grasses as compared to dry land hay is shown in Table 2.

TABLE 1. General Orders of Magnitude of Gross Primary Productivity in Terms of Dry Weight of Organic Matter Fixed Annually

Ecosystem	gms/M^2/year (grams/square meters/year)	lbs/acre/year
Land deserts, deep oceans	Tens	Hundreds
Grasslands, forests, eutrophic lakes, ordinary agriculture	Hundreds	Thousands
Estuaries, deltas, coral reefs, intensive agriculture (sugar cane, rice)	Thousands	Ten-thousands

TABLE 2. Analyses of Some Tidal Marsh Grasses

T/A	Percentage Composition					
Dry Wt.	Protein	Fat	Fiber	Water	Ash	N-free Extract
Distichlis spicata (pure stand, dry)						
2.8	5.3	1.7	32.4	8.2	6.7	45.5
Short *Spartina alterniflora* and *Salicornia europaea* (in standing water)						
1.2	7.7	2.5	31.1	8.8	12.0	37.7
Spartina alterniflora (tall, pure stand in standing water)						
3.5	7.6	2.0	29.0	8.3	15.5	37.3
Spartina patens (pure stand, dry)						
3.2	6.0	2.2	30.0	8.1	9.0	44.5
Spartina alterniflora and *Spartina patens* (mixed stand, wet)						
3.4	6.8	1.9	29.8	8.1	10.4	42.8
Spartina alterniflora (short, wet)						
2.2	8.8	2.4	30.4	8.7	13.3	36.3
Comparable Analyses for Hay						
1st cut	6.0	2.0	36.2	6.7	4.2	44.9
2nd cut	11.0	1.7	20.5	10.4	5.9	30.5

Analyses performed by Roland W. Gilbert, Department of Agricultural Chemistry, U.R.I.

B The actual utilization of marsh grass is accomplished primarily by its decomposition and ingestion by micro organisms. (Figure 7) A small quantity of seeds and solids is consumed directly by birds.

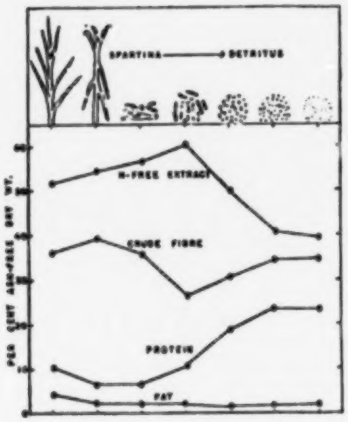


Figure 7 The nutritive composition of successive stages of decomposition of Spartina marsh grass, showing increase in protein and decrease in carbohydrate with increasing age and decreasing size of detritus particles.

1 The quantity of micro invertebrates which thrive on this wealth of decaying marsh has not been estimated, nor has the actual production of small indigenous fishes and invertebrates such as the top minnows (Fundulus), or the mud snails (Nassa), and others.

2 Many forms of oceanic life migrate into the estuaries, especially the marsh areas, for important portions of their life histories as is mentioned elsewhere (Figure 8). It has been estimated that in excess of 60% of the marine commercial and sport fisheries are estuarine or marsh dependent in some way.

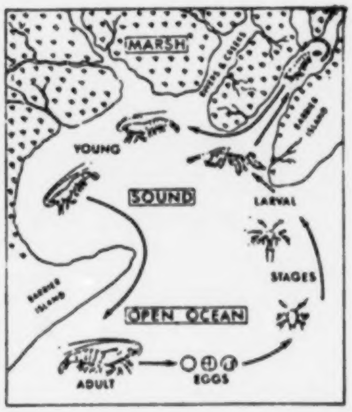
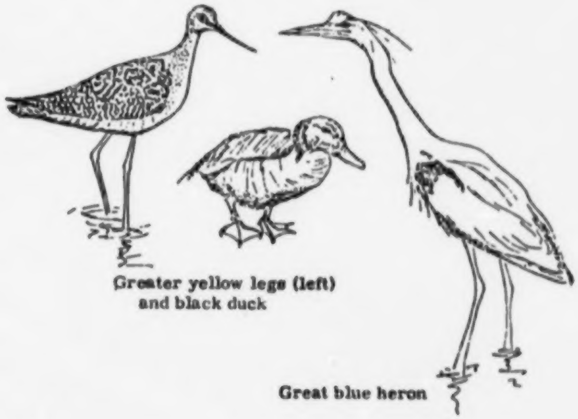


Figure 8 Diagram of the life cycle of white shrimp (after Anderson and Lunz 1965).

3 An effort to make an indirect estimate of productivity in a Rhode Island marsh was made on a single August day by recording the numbers and kinds of birds that fed on a relatively small area (Figure 9). Between 700 and 1000 wild birds of 12 species, ranging from 100 least sandpipers to uncountable numbers of seagulls were counted. One food requirement estimate for three-pound poultry in the confined inactivity of a poultry yard is approximately one ounce per pound of bird per day.



Greater yellow legs (left) and black duck

Great blue heron

Figure 9 Some Common Marsh Birds

One-hundred black bellied plovers at approximately ten ounces each would weigh on the order of sixty pounds. At the same rate of food consumption, this would indicate nearly four pounds of food required for this species alone. The much greater activity of the wild birds would obviously greatly increase their food requirements, as would their relatively smaller size.

Considering the range of foods consumed, the sizes of the birds, and the fact that at certain seasons, thousands of migrating ducks and others pause to feed here, the enormous productivity of such a marsh can be better understood.

V INLAND BOGS AND MARSHES

A Much of what has been said of tidal marshes also applies to inland wetlands. As was mentioned earlier, not all inland swamps are salt-free, any more than all marshes affected by tidal rythms are saline.

B The specificity of specialized floras to particular types of wetlands is perhaps more spectacular in freshwater wetlands than in the marine, where Juncus, Spartina, and Mangroves tend to dominate.

1 Sphagnum, or peat moss, is probably one of the most widespead and abundant wetland plants on earth. Deevey (1958) quotes an estimate that there is probably upwards of 223 billions (dry weight) of tons of peat in the world today, derived during recent geologic time from Sphagnum bogs. Particularly in the northern regions, peat moss tends to overgrow ponds and shallow depressions, eventually forming the vast tundra plains and moores of the north.

2 Long lists of other bog and marsh plants might be cited, each with its own special requirements, topographical, and geographic distribution, etc. Included would be the familiar cattails, spike rushes, cotton grasses, sedges, trefoils, alders, and many, many others.

C Types of inland wetlands.

1 As noted above (Cf: Figure 1) tidal marshes often merge into freshwater marshes and bayous. Deltaic tidal swamps and marshes are often saline in the seaward portion, and fresh in the landward areas.

2 River bottom wetlands differ from those formed from lakes, since wide flood plains subject to periodic inundation are the final stages of the erosion of river valleys, whereas lakes in general tend to be eliminated by the geologic processes of natural eutrophication often involving Sphagnum and peat formation. Riverbottom marshes in the southern United States, with favorable climates, have luxurient growths such as the canebrake of the lower Mississippi, or a characteristic timber growth such as cypress.

3 Although bird life is the most conspicuous animal element in the fauna (Cf: Figure 9), many mammals, such as muskrats, beavers, otters, and others are also marsh-oriented. (Figure 12)

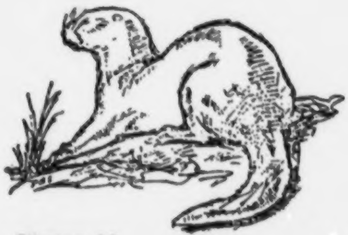


Figure 12 Otter

VI POLLUTION

A No single statement can summarize the effects of pollution on marshlands as distinct from effects noted elsewhere on other habitats.

B Reduction of Primary Productivity

The primary producers in most wetlands are the grasses and peat mosses. Production may be reduced or eliminated by:

1 Changes in the water level brought about by flooding or drainage.

a Marshland areas are sometimes diked and flooded to produce fresh-water ponds. This may be for aesthetic reasons, to suppress the growth of noxious marsh inhabitating insects such as mosquitoes or biting midges, to construct an industrial waste holding pond, a thermal or a sewage stabilization pond, a "convenient" result of highway causeway construction, or other reason. The result is the elimination of an area of marsh. A small compensating border of marsh may or may not develop.

b High tidal marshes were often ditched and drained in former days to stabilize the sod for salt hay or "thatch" harvesting which was highly sought after in colonial days. This inevitably changed the character of the marsh, but it remained as essentially marshland. Conversion to outright agricultural land has been less widespread because of the necessity of diking to exclude the periodic floods or tidal incursions, and carefully timed drainage to eliminate excess precipitation. Mechanical pumping of tidal marshes has not been economical in this country, although the success of the Dutch and others in this regard is well known.

2 Marsh grasses may also be eliminated by smothering as, for example, by deposition of dredge spoils, or the spill or discharge of sewage sludge.

3 Considerable marsh area has been eliminated by industrial construction activity such as wharf and dock construction, oil well construction and operation, and the discharge of toxic brines and other chemicals.

C Consumer production (animal life) has been drastically reduced by the deliberate distribution of pesticides. In some cases, this has been aimed at nearby agricultural lands for economic crop pest control, in other cases the marshes have been sprayed or dusted directly to control noxious insects.

1 The results have been universally disastrous for the marshes, and the benefits to the human community often questionable.

2 Pesticides designed to kill nuisance insects, are also toxic to other arthropods so that in addition to the target species, such forage staples as the various scuds (amphipods), fiddler crabs, and other macroinvertebrates have either been drastically reduced or entirely eliminated in many places. For example, one familiar with fiddler crabs can traverse miles of marsh margins, still riddled with their burrows, without seeing a single live crab.

3 DDT and related compounds have been "eaten up the food chain" (biological magnification effect) until fish eating and other predatory birds such as herons and egrets (Figure 9), have been virtually eliminated from vast areas, and the accumulation of DDT in man himself is only too well known.

D Most serious of the marsh enemies is man himself. In his quest for "lebensraum" near the water, he has all but killed the water he strives to approach. Thus up to twenty percent of the marsh--estuarine area in various parts of the country has already been utterly destroyed by cut and fill real estate developments (Figures 10, 11).

E Swimming birds such as ducks, loons, cormorants, pelicans, and many others are severely jeopardized by floating pollutants such as oil.

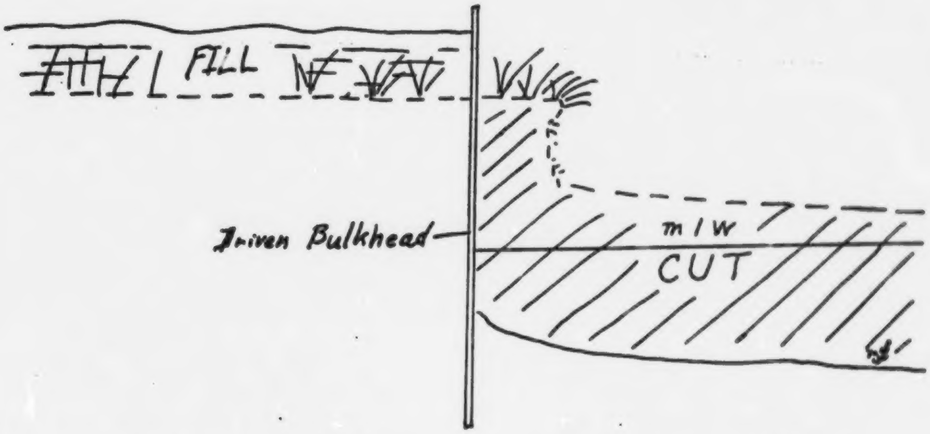

FILL
Driven Bulkhead
mlw
CUT

Figure 10. Diagrammatic representation of cut-and-fill for real estate development. mlw = mean low water

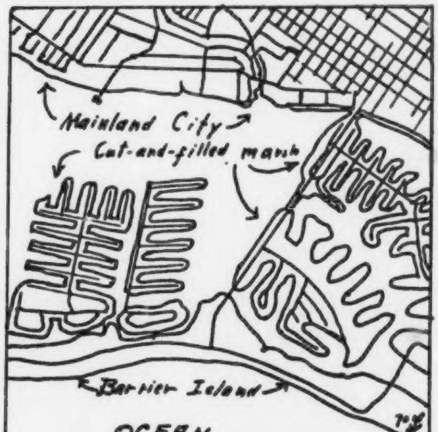

Mainland City
Cut-and-filled marsh
Barrier Island
OCEAN

Figure 11. Tracing of portion of map of a southern city showing extent of cut-and-fill real estate development.

VII SUMMARY

A Wetlands comprise the marshes, swamps, bogs, and tundra areas of the world. They are essential to the well-being of our surface waters and ground waters. They are essential to aquatic life of all types living in the open waters. They are essential as habitat for all forms of wildlife.

B The tidal marsh is the area of emergent vegetation bordering the ocean or an estuary.

C Marshes are highly productive areas, essential to the maintenance of a well rounded community of aquatic life.

D Wetlands may be destroyed by:

1 Degradation of the life forms of which it is composed in the name of nuisance control.

2 Physical destruction by cut-and-fill to create more land area.

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This outline was prepared by H. W. Jackson, former Chief Biologist, National Training Center, and revised by R. M. Sinclair, Aquatic Biologist, National Training Center, MOTD, OWPO, EPA, Cincinnati, OH 45268.

Descriptors: Aquatic Environment, Biological Estuarine Environment, Lentic Environment, Lotic Environment, Currents, Marshes, Limnology, Magnification, Water Properties

CLASSIFICATION OF COMMUNITIES, ECOSYSTEMS, AND TROPHIC LEVELS

I A COMMUNITY is an assemblage of populations of plants, animals, bacteria, and fungi that live in an environment and interact with one another, forming together a distinctive living system with its own composition, structure, environmental relations, development, and function.

II An ECOSYSTEM is a community and its environment treated together as a functional system of complementary relationships, and transfer and circulation of energy and matter. (a delightful little essay on the odyssey of atoms X and Y through an ecosystem is in Leopold's, A Sand County Almanac).

III TROPHIC levels are a convenient means of classifying organisms according to nutrition, or food and feeding.

A PRODUCER, the photosynthetic plant or first organism on the food chain sequence. Fossil fuels were produced photosynthetically!

B Herbivore or primary CONSUMER, the first animal which feeds on plant food.

C First carnivore or secondary CONSUMER, an animal feeding on a plant-eating animal.

D Second carnivore or tertiary CONSUMER feeding on the preceding.

E Tertiary carnivore.

F Quaternary carnivore.

G DECOMPOSERS, OR REDUCERS, bacteria which break down the above organisms. Often called the middlemen or stokers of the furnace of photosynthesis.

H Saprovores or DETRITIVORES which feed on bacteria and/or fungi.

IV Taxonomic Groupings

A TAXOCENES, a specific group of organisms. Ex. midges. For obvious reasons most systematists (taxonomists) can specialize in only one group of organisms. This fact is difficult for the non-biologist to grasp!

B Size, which is often dictated by the investigator's sampling equipment and specific interests.

V Arbitrary due to organism habitat preferences, available sampling devices, whims of the investigator, and mesh sizes of nets and sieves.

A PLANKTON, organisms suspended in a body of water and at the mercy of currents. This group has been subject to numerous divisional schemes. Plants are PHYTOPLANKTON, and animals, ZOOPLANKTON. Those retained by nets are obviously, NET PLANKTON. Those passing thru even the finest meshed nets are NANNOPLANKTON.

B PERIPHYTON, the community of microorganisms which grow on submerged substrates. Literal meaning "to grow around plants", however standard glass microslides are placed in the aquatic habitat to standardize results.

C BENTHOS, is often used to mean MACROINVERTEBRATES, although there are benthic organisms in other plant, animal, and protist groups. Benthic refers strictly to the bottom substrates of lakes, streams, and other water bodies.

D MACROINVERTEBRATES, are animals retained on a No. 30 mesh screen (approximately 0.5 mm) and thus visible to the naked eye.

E MACROPHYTES, the larger aquatic plants which are divided into emersed, floating, and submersed communities. Usually vascular plants but may include the larger algae and "primitive" plants. These have posed tremendous economic problems in the large man-made lakes, especially in tropical areas.

F NEKTON, in freshwater, essentially fish, salamanders, and the larger crustacea. In contrast to PLANKTON, these organisms are not at the mercy of the current.

G NEUSTON, or PLEUSTON, are inhabitants of the surface film (meniscus organisms), either supported by it, hanging from, or breaking through it. Other organisms are trapped by this neat little barrier of nature. The micro members of this are easily sampled by placing a clean cover slip on top of the surface film then either leaving it a specified time or examining it immediately under the microscope.

H DRIFT, macroinvertebrates which drift with the streams current either periodically (diel or 24 hour), behaviorally, catastrophically or incidentally.

I BIOLOGICAL FLOCS, are suspended microorganisms that are formed by various means. In wastewater treatment plants they are encouraged in concrete aeration basins using diffused air or oxygen (the heart of the activated sludge process).

J MANIPULATED SUBSTRATE COMMUNITIES. Like the preceding community, these are manipulated by man. Placing artificial or natural substrates in a body of water will cause these communities to appear thereon.

K We will again emphasize ARBITRARY, because organisms confound our neat little schemes to classify them. Many move from one community to another for various reasons. However, all these basic schemes do have intrinsic value, provided they are used with reason!

This outline was prepared by R. M. Sinclair, Aquatic Biologist, National Training Center, MOTD, OWPO, USEPA, Cincinnati, Ohio 45268.

Descriptors: Biological Communities

LIMNOLOGY AND ECOLOGY OF PLANKTON

I INTRODUCTION

A Most Interference Organisms are Small.

B Small Organisms generally have Short Life Histories.

C Populations of Organisms with Short Life Histories may Fluctuate Rapidly in Response to Key Environmental Changes.

D Small Organisms are Relatively at the Mercy of the Elements

E The Following Discussion will Analyze the Nature of These Elements with Reference to the Response of Important Organisms.

II PHYSICAL FACTORS OF THE ENVIRONMENT

A Light is a Fundamental Source of Energy for Life and Heat.

1 Insolation is affected by geographical location and meteorological factors.

2 Light penetration in water is affected by angle of incidence (geographical), turbidity, and color. The proportion of light reflected depends on the angle of incidence, the temperature, color, and other qualities of the water. In general, as the depth increases arithmetically, the light tends to decrease geometrically. Blues, greens, and yellows tend to penetrate most deeply while ultra violet, violets, and orange-reds are most quickly absorbed. On the order of 90% of the total illumination which penetrates the surface film is absorbed in the first 10 meters of even the clearest water.

3 Turbidity may originate within or outside of a lake.

a That which comes in from outside (allochthonous) is predominately inert solids (tripton).

b That of internal origin (autochthonous) tends to be biological in nature.

B Heat and Temperature Phenomena are Important in Aquatic Ecology.

1 The total quantity of heat available to a body of water per year can be calculated and is known as the heat budget.

2 Heat is derived directly from insolation; also by transfer from air, internal friction, and other sources.

C Density Phenomena

1 Density and viscosity affect the floatation and locomotion of microorganisms.

a Pure fresh water achieves its maximum density at 4°C and its maximum viscosity at 0°C.

b The rate of change of density increases with the temperature.

2 Density stratification affects aquatic life and water uses.

a In summer, a mass of warm surface water, the epilimnion, is usually present and separated from a cool deeper mass, the hypolimnion, by a relatively thin layer known as the thermocline.

b Ice cover and annual spring and fall overturns are due to successive seasonal changes in the relative densities of the epilimnion and the hypolimnion, profoundly influenced by prevailing meteorological conditions.

c The sudden exchange of water masses having different chemical characteristics may have catastrophic effects on certain biota, may cause others to bloom.

d Silt laden waters may seek certain levels, depending on their own specific gravity in relation to existing layers already present.

e Saline waters will also stratify according to the relative densities of the various layers.

3 The viscosity of water is greater at lower temperatures.

a This is important not only in situations involving the control of flowing water as in a sand filter, but also since overcoming resistance to flow generates heat, it is significant in the heating of water by internal friction from wave and current action and many delay the establishment of anchor ice under critical conditions.

b It is easier for plankton to remain suspended in cold viscous (and also dense) water than in less viscous warm water. This is reflected in differences in the appearance of winter vs summer forms of life (also arctic vs tropical).

D Shore development, depth, inflow - outflow pattern, and topographic features affect the behavior of the water.

E Water movements that may affect organisms include such phonomena as waves, currents, tides, seiches, floods, and others.

1 Waves or rhythmic movement

a The best known are traveling waves. These are effective only against objects near the surface. They have little effect on the movement of large masses of water.

b Standing waves or seiches occur in all lakes but are seldom large enough to be observed. An "internal seich" is an oscillation in a density mass within a lake with no surface manifestation may cause considerable water movement.

2 Langmuire spirals (or Langmuire circulation) are a relatively massive cylindrical motion imparted to surface waters under the influence of wind. The axes of the cylinders are parallel to the direction of the wind, and their depth and velocity depend on the depth of the water, the velocity and duration of the wind, and other factors. The net result is that adjacent cylinders tend to rotate in opposite directions like meshing cog wheels. Thus the water between two given spirals may be meeting and sinking, while that between spirals on either side will be meeting and rising. Water over the sinking areas tends to accumulate flotsam and jetsam on the surface in long conspicuous lines. Masses of microcrustacea attemping to stay near the surface may impart a reddish color to this water, and it is thus often referred to as the "red dance." The rising water on the other hand, having recently come from some depth, may (at least in the oceans or large lakes) have a bluish appearance, and is known as the "blue dance."

a This phenomenon is of considerable importance to those sampling for plankton (or even chemicals) near the surface when the wind is blowing. Grab samples from either dance might obviously differ considerably, and if a plankton tow is contemplated, it should be made across the wind in order that the net may pass through a succession of both dances.

b Langmuire spirals are not usually established until the wind has either been blowing for an extended period, or else is blowing rather hard. Their presence can be detected by the lines of foam and other floating material which coincide with the direction of the wind.

3 Currents

a Currents are arhythmic water movements which have had major study only in oceanography. They primarily are concerned with the translocation of water masses. They may be generated internally by virtue of density changes, or externally by wind or runoff.

b Turbulence phenomena or eddy currents are largely responsible for lateral mixing in a current. These are of far more importance in the economy of a body of water than mere laminar flow.

c Tides, or rather tidal currents, are reversible (or oscillatory) on a relatively long and predictable period. They are closely allied to seiches. For all practical purposes, they are restricted to oceanic (especially coastal) waters.

If there is no freshwater inflow involved, tidal currents are basically "in and out;" if a significant amount of freshwater is added to the system at a constant rate, the outflowing current will in general exceed the inflow by the amount of freshwater input.

There are typically two tidal cycles per lunar day (approximately 25 hours), but there is continuous gradation from this to only one cycle per (lunar) day in some places.

Estuarine plankton populations are extremely influenced by local tidal patterns.

d Flood waters range from torrential velocities which tear away and transport vast masses of substrate to quiet backwaters which may inundate normally dry land areas for extended periods of time. In the former case, planktonic life is flushed away completely; in the latter, a local plankton bloom may develop which may be of immediate significance, or which may serve as an inoculum for receding waters.

F Surface Tension and the Surface Film

1 The surface film is the habitat of the "neuston", a group of particular importance in water supplies.

2 Surface tension lowered by surfactants may eliminate the neuston. This can be a significant biological observation.

III DISSOLVED SUBSTANCES

A Carbon dioxide is released by plants and animals in respiration, but taken in by plants in photosynthesis.

B Oxygen is the biological complement of carbon dioxide, and necessary for all animal life.

C Nitrogen and phosphorus are fundamental nutrients for plant life.

1 Occur in great dilution, concentrated by plants.

2 The distribution of nitrogen compounds is generally correlated with the oxygen curve, especially in oceans.

D Iron, manganese, sulphur, and silicon are other minerals important to aquatic life which exhibit biological stratification.

E Many other minerals are present but their biological distribution in waters is less well known, fluorine, tin, and vanadium have recently been added to the "essential" list, and more may well follow.

F Dissolved organic matter is present in even the purest of lakes.

IV BIOLOGICAL FACTORS

A Nutritional Classification of Organisms

1 Holophytic or independent organisms, like green plants, produce their own basic food elements from the physical environment.

2 Holozoic or dependent organisms, like animals, ingest and digest solid food particles of organic origin.

3 Saprophytic or carrion eating organisms, like many fungi and bacteria, digest and assimilate the dead bodies of other organisms or their products.

B The Prey-Predator Relationship is Simply one Organism Eating Another.

C Toxic and Hormonic Relationships

1 Some organisms such as certain blue green algae and some armored flagellages produce substances poisonous to others.

2 Antibiotic action in nature is not well understood but has been shown to play a very influential role in the economy of nature.

V BIOTIC COMMUNITIES (OR ECOSYSTEMS)

A A biotic community will be defined here as an assemblage of organisms living in a given ecological niche (as defined below). Producer (plant-like), consumer (animal-like) and reducer (bacteria and fungi) organisms are usually included. A source of energy (nutrient, food) must also be present. The essential concept in that each so-called community is a relatively independent entity. Actually this position is only tenable at any given instant, as individuals are constantly shifting from one community to another in response to stages in their life cycles, physical conditions, etc. The only one to be considered in detail here is the plankton.

B Plankton are the macroscopic and microscopic animals, plants, bacteria, etc. floating free in the open water. Many clog filters, cause tastes, odors, and other troubles in water supplies.

1 Those that pass through a plankton net (No. 25 silk bolting cloth or equivalent) or sand filter are often known as nannoplankton (they usually greatly exceed the "net" plankton in actual quantity).

2 Those less than four microns in length are sometimes called ultraplankton.

3 There are many ways in which plankton may be classified: taxonomic, ecological, industrial.

4 The concentration of plankton varies markedly in space and time.

a Depth, light, currents, and water quality profoundly affect plankton distribution.

b The relative abundance of plankton in the various seasons is generally:

1 spring, 2 fall, 3 summer, 4 winter

5 Marine plankton include many larger animal forms than are found in fresh waters.

C The benthic community is generally considered to be the macroscopic life living in or on the bottom.

D The periphyton community might be defined as the microscopic benthos, except that they are by no means confined to the bottom. Any surface, floating, or not, is usually covered by film of living organisms. There is frequent exchange between the periphyton and plankton communities.

E The nekton is the community of larger, free-swimming animals (fishes, shrimps, etc.), and so is dependent on the other communities for basic plant foods.

F Neuston or Pleuston

This community inhabits the air/water interface, and may be suspended above or below it or break it. Naturally this interface is a very critical one, it being micro molecular and allowing interchange between atmospheric contaminants and the water medium. Rich in bacteria, metals, protozoa, pesticides etc.

VI THE EVOLUTION OF WATERS

A The history of a body of water determines its present condition. Natural waters have evolved in the course of geologic time to what we know today.

B In the course of their evolution, streams in general pass through four general stages of development which may be called: birth, youth, maturity, and old age.

1 Establishment of birth. In an extant stream, this might be a "dry run" or headwater streambed, before it had eroded down to the level of ground water.

2 Youthful streams; when the stream bed is eroded below the ground water level, spring water enters and the stream becomes permanent.

3 Mature streams; have wide valleys, a developed flood plain, deeper, more turbid, and usually warmer water, sand, mud, silt, or clay bottom materials which shift with increase in flow.

4 In old age, streams have approached base level. During flood stage they scour their bed and deposit materials on the flood plain which may be very broad and flat. During normal flow the channel is refilled and many shifting bars are developed.

(Under the influence of man this pattern may be broken up, or temporarily interrupted. Thus as essentially "youthful" stream might take on some of the characteristics of a "mature" stream following soil erosion, organic enrichment, and increased surface runoff. Correction of these conditions might likewise be followed by at least a partial reversion to the "original" condition.)

C Lakes have a developmental history which somewhat parallels that of streams.

1 The method of formation greatly influences the character and subsequent history of lakes.

2 Maturing or natural eutrophication of lakes

a If not already present, shoal areas are developed through erosion of the shore by wave action and undertow.

b Currents produce bars across bays and thus cut off irregulars areas.

c Silt brought in by tributary streams settles out in the quiet lake water.

d Rooted aquatics grow on shoals and bars, and in doing so cut off bays and contribute to the filling of the lake.

e Dissolved carbonates and other materials are precipitated in the deeper portions of the lake in part through the action of plants.

f When filling is well advanced sphagnum mats extend outward from the shore. These mats are followed by sedges and grasses which finally convert the lake into a marsh.

3 Extinction of lakes. After lakes reach maturity their progress toward filling up is accelerated. They become extinct through:

a The downcutting of the outlet.

b Filling with detritus eroded from the shores or brought in by tributary streams.

c Filling by the accumulation of the remains of vegetable materials growing in the lake itself.

(Often two or three processes may act concurrently)

When man hastens the above process, it is often called "cultural eutrophication."

VII PRODUCTIVITY

A The biological resultant of all physical and chemical factors is the quantity of life that may actually be present. The ability to produce this "biomass" is often referred to as the "productivity" of a body of water. This is neither good nor bad per se. A water of low productivity is a "poor" water biologically, and also a relatively "pure" or "clean" water; hence desirable as a water supply. A productive water on the other hand may be a nuisance to man or highly desirable. Some of the factors which influence the productivity of waters are as follows:

B Factors affecting stream productivity. To be productive of plankton, a stream must provide adequate nutrients, light, a suitable temperature, and time for growth to take place.

1 Youthful streams, especially on rock or sand substrates are low in essential nutrients. Temperatures in mountainous regions are usually low, and due to the steep gradient, time for growth is short. Although ample light is available, growth of true plankton is thus greatly limited.

2 As the stream flows toward a more "mature" condition nutrients tend to accumulate, and gradient diminishes and so time of flow increases, temperature tends to increase, and plankton flourish.

Should a heavy load of inert silt develop on the other hand, the turbidity would reduce the light penetration and consequently the general plankton production would diminish.

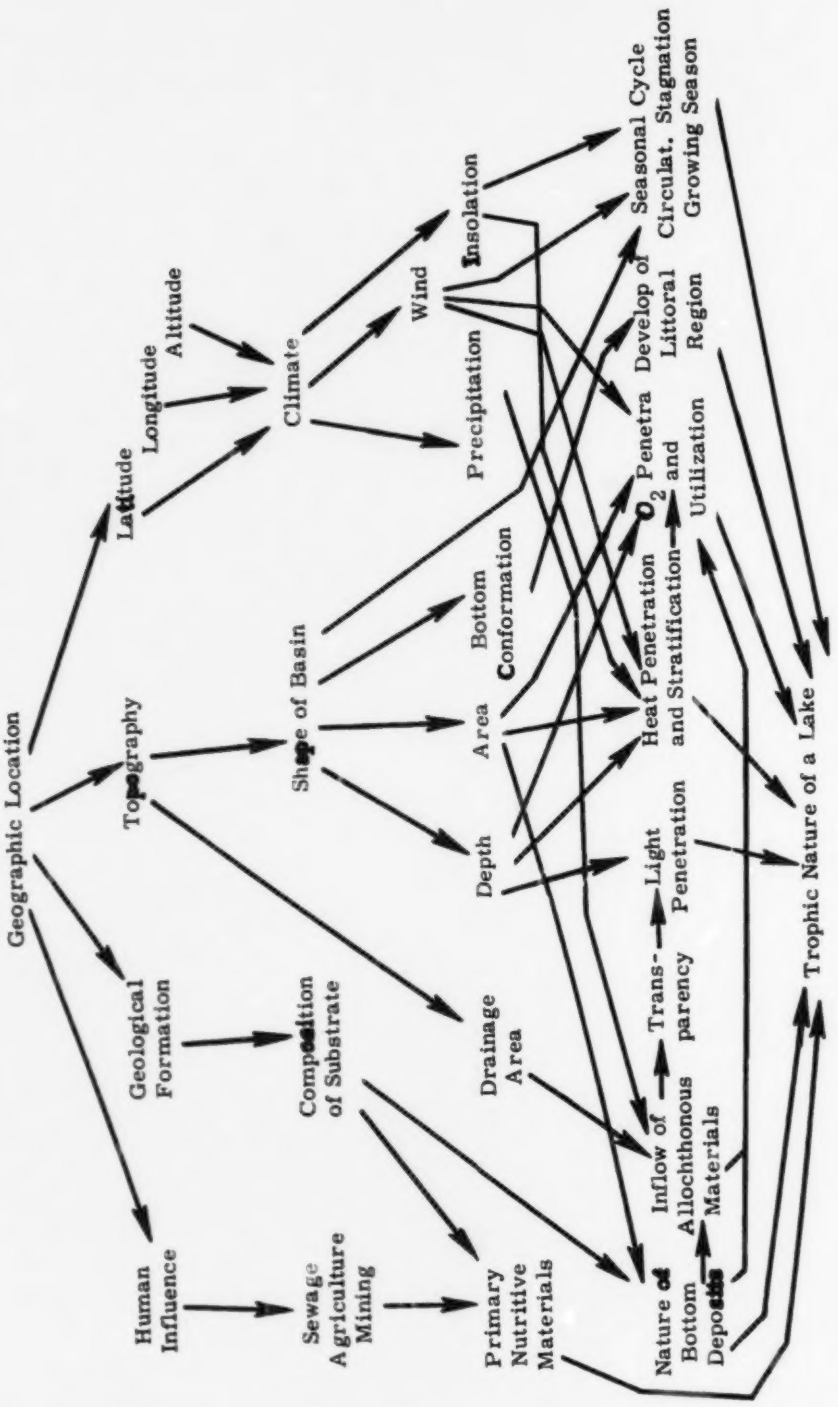
3 As the stream approaches base level (old age) and the time available for plankton growth increases, the balance between turbidity, nutrient levels, and temperature and other seasonal conditions, determines the overall productivity.

C Factors Affecting the Productivity of Lakes

1 The size, shape, and depth of the lake basin. Shallow water is more productive than deeper water since more light will reach the bottom to stimulate rooted plant growth. As a corollary, lakes with more shoreline, having more shallow water, are in general more productive. Broad shallow lakes and reservoirs have the greatest production potential (and hence should be avoided for water supplies).

2 Hard waters are generally more productive than soft waters as there are more plant nutrient minerals available. This is often

FACTORS AFFECTING PRODUCTIVITY


Geographic Location
Latitude
Topography
Geological Formation
Human Influence
Longitude
Altitude
Climate
Shape of Basin
Composition of Substrate
Sewage Agriculture Mining
Wind
Insolation
Precipitation
Bottom Conformation
Area
Depth
Drainage Area
Primary Nutritive Materials
Seasonal Cycle Circulat. Stagnation Growing Season
Develop of Littoral Region
O_2 Penetration and Utilization
Heat Penetration and Stratification
Light Penetration
Trans-parency
Inflow of Allochthonous Materials
Nature of Bottom Deposits
Trophic Nature of a Lake

greatly influenced by the character of the soil and rocks in the watershed, and the quality and quantity of ground water entering the lake. In general, pH ranges of 6.8 to 8.2 appear to be most productive.

3 Turbidity reduces productivity as light penetration is reduced.

4 The presence or absence of thermal stratification with its semi-annual turnovers affect productivity by distributing nutrients throughout the water mass.

5 Climate, temperature, prevalance of ice and snow, are also important.

D Factors Affecting the Productivity of Reservoirs

1 The productivity of reservoirs is governed by much the same principles as that of lakes, with the difference that the water level is much more under the control of man. Fluctuations in water level can be used to deliberately increase of decrease productivity. This can be demonstrated by a comparison of the TVA reservoirs which practice a summer drawdown with some of those in the west where a winter drawdown is the rule.

2 The level at which water is removed from the reservoir is also important. The upper epilimnion may have a high plankton turbidity while lower down the plankton count may be less, but a taste and odor causer (such as Mallomonas) may be present. There may be two thermoclines, with a mass of muddy water flowing between a clear upper epilimnion and a clear hypolimnion. Other combinations ad infinitum may occur.

3 Reservoir discharges also profoundly affect the DO, temperature, and turbidity in the stream below a dam. Too much fluctuation in flow may permit sections of the stream to dry periodically.

VIII CLASSIFICATION OF LAKES AND RESERVOIRS

A The productivity of lakes and impoundments is such a conspicuous feature that it is often used as a means of classification.

1 Oligotrophic lakes are the geologically younger, less productive lakes, which are deep, have clear water, and usually support Salmonoid fishes.

2 Mesotropic lakes are generally intermediate between oligotrophic and eutrophic lakes. They are moderately productive, yet pleasant to be around.

3 Eutrophic lakes are more mature, more turbid, and richer. They are usually shallower. They are richer in dissolved solids; N, P, and Ca are abundant. Plankton is abundant and there is often a rich bottom fauna. Nuisance conditions often appear.

4 Dystrophic lakes - bog lakes - low in pH, water yellow to brown, dissolved solids; N, P, and Ca scanty but humic materials abundant; bottom fauna and plankton poor, and fish species are limited.

B Reservoirs may be classified as storage, or run of the river.

1 Storage reservoirs have a large volume in relation to their inflow.

2 Run of the river reservoirs have a large flow through in relation to their storage value.

C According to location, lakes and reservoirs may be classified as polar, temperate, or tropical. Differences in climatic and geographic conditions result in differences in their biology.

IX THE MANAGEMENT OR CONTROL OF ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

A Liebig's Law of the Minimum states that productivity is limited by the nutrient present in the least amoung at any given time relative to the assimilative capacity of the organism.

B Shelford's Law of Toleration:

Minimum Limit of toleration		Range of Optimum of factor	Maximum limit of toleration	
Absent	← Decreasing Abundance	Greatest abundance	→ Decreasing Abundance	Absent

C The artificial introduction of nutrients (sewage pollution or fertilizer) thus tends to eliminate existing limiting minimums for some species and create intolerable maximums for other species.

1 Known limiting minimums may sometimes be deliberately maintained.

2 As the total available energy supply is increased, productivity tends to increase.

3 As productivity increases, the whole character of the water may be changed from a meagerly productive clear water lake (oligotrophic) to a highly productive and usually turbid lake (eutrophic).

4 Eutrophication leads to treatment troubles.

D Control of eutrophication may be accomplished by various means

1 Watershed management, adequate preparation of reservoir sites, and pollution control tend to maintain minimum limiting nutritional factors.

2 Shading out the energy of insolation by roofing or inert turbidity; suppresses photosynthesis.

3 Introduction of substances toxic to some fundamental part of the food chain (such as copper sulphate) tends to temporarily inhibit productivity.

X SUMMARY

A A body of water such as a lake represents an intricately balanced system in a state of dynamic equilibrium. Modification imposed at one point in the system automatically results in compensatory adjustments at associated points.

B The more thorough our knowledge of the entire system, the better we can judge where to impose control measures to achieve a desired result.

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Descriptors: Plankton, Ecology, Limnology

BIOLOGY OF ZOOPLANKTON COMMUNITIES

I CLASSIFICATION

A The planktonic community is composed of organisms that are relatively independent of the bottom to complete their life history. They inhabit the open water of lakes (pelagic zone). Some species have inactive or resting stages that lie on the bottom and carry the species through periods of stress; e. g., winter. A few burrow in the mud and enter the pelagic zone at night, but most live in the open water all the time that the species is present in an active form.

B Compared to the bottom fauna and flora, the plankton consists of relatively few kinds of organisms that are consistently and abundantly present. Two major categories are often called phytoplankton (plants) and zooplankton (animals), but this is based on an outmoded classification of living things. The modern tendency is to identify groupings according to their function in the ecosystem: Primary producers (photosynthetic organisms), consumers (zooplankton), and decomposers (heterotrophic bacteria and fungi).

C The primary difference then is nutritional; phytoplankton use inorganic nutrient elements and solar radiation. Zooplankton feed on particles, much of which can be phytoplankton cells, but can be bacteria or particles of dead organisms (detritus) originating in the plankton, the shore region, or the land surrounding the lake.

D The swimming powers of planktonic organisms is so limited that their horizontal distribution is determined mostly by movements of water. Some of the animals are able to swim fast enough that they can migrate vertically tens of meters each day, but they are capable of little horizontal navigation. At most, some species of crustaceans show a general avoidance of the shore areas during calm weather when the water is moving more slowly than the animals can swim. By definition, animals that are able to control their horizontal location are nekton, not plankton.

E In this presentation, a minimum of classification and taxonomy is used, but it should be realized that each group is typified by adaptations of structure on physiology that are related to the planktonic mode of existence. These adaptations are reflected in the classification.

II FRESHWATER ZOOPLANKTON

A The freshwater zooplankton is dominated by representatives of three groups of animals, two of them crustaceans: Copepoda, Cladocera, Rotifera. All have feeding mechanisms that permit a high degree of selectivity of food, and two can produce resting eggs that can withstand severe environmental conditions. In general the food of usual zooplankton populations ranges from bacteria and small algae to small animals.

B The Copepoda reproduce by a normal biparental process, and the females lay fertilized eggs in groups which are carried around in sacs until they hatch. The immature animals go through an elaborate development with many stages. The later stages have mouthparts that permit them to collect particles. In many cases, these are in the form of combs which remove small particles by a sort of filtration process. In others, they are modified to form grasping organs by which small animals or large algae are captured individually.

C The Cladocera (represented by Daphnia) reproduce much of the time by parthenogenesis, so that only females are present. Eggs are held by the mother in a brood chamber until the young are developed far enough to fend for themselves. The newborn animals look like miniature adults, and do not go through an elaborate series of developmental stages in the water as do the copepods. Daphnia has comb-formed filtering structures on some of its legs that act as filters.

D Under some environmental conditions the development of eggs is affected and males are produced. Fertilized eggs are produced that can resist freezing and drying, and these carry the population through unsatisfactory conditions.

E The Rotifera are small animals with a ciliated area on the head which creates currents used both for locomotion and for bringing food particles to the mouth. They too reproduce by parthenogenesis during much of the year, but production of males results in fertilized, resistant resting eggs. Most rotifers lay eggs one at a time and carry them until they hatch.

III ZOOPLANKTON POPULATION DYNAMICS

A In general, zooplankton populations are at a minimum in the cold seasons, although some species flourish in cold water. Species with similar food requirements seem to reproduce at different times of the year or are segregated in different layers of lakes.

B There is no single, simple measurement of activity for the zooplankton as a whole that can be used as an index of production as can the uptake of radioactive carbon for the phytoplankton. However, it is possible to find the rate of reproduction of the species that carry their eggs. The basis of the method is that the number of eggs in a sample taken at a given time represents the number of animals that will be added to the population during an interval that is equal to the length of time it takes the eggs to develop. Thus the potential growth rate of the populations can be determined. The actual growth rate, determined by successive samplings and counting, is less than the potential, and the difference is a measure of the death rate.

C Such measurements of birth and death rates permits a more penetrating analysis to be made of the causes of population change than if data were available for population size alone.

D Following is an indication of the major environmental factors in the control of zooplankton.

1 Temperature has an obvious effect in its general control of rates. In addition, the production and hatching of resting eggs may be affected.

2 Inorganic materials

Freshwater lakes vary in the content of dissolved solids according to the geological situation. The total salinity and proportion of different dissolved materials in water can affect the population. Some species are limited to soft water, others to saline waters, as the brine shrimp. The maximum population size developed may be related to salinity, but this is probably an indirect effect working through the abundance of nutrients and production of food.

3 Food supply

Very strong correlations have been found between reproduction and food supply as measured by abundance of phytoplankton. The rate of food supply can affect almost all aspects of population biology including rate of individual growth, time of maturity, rate of reproduction and length of life.

4 Apparently in freshwater, dissolved organic materials are of little nutritional significance, although some species can be kept if the concentration of dissolved material is high enough. Some species require definite vitamins in the food.

5 Effect of predation on populations

The kind, quantity and relative proportions of species strongly affected by grazing by vertebrate and invertebrate predators. The death rate of Daphnia is correlated with the abundance of a predator. Planktivorous fish (alewives) selectively feed on larger species, so a lake with alewives is dominated by the smaller species of crustaceans and large ones are scarce or absent.

6 Other aspects of zooplankton

Many species migrate vertically considerable distances each day. Typically, migrating species spend the daylight hours deep in the lake and rise toward the surface in late afternoon and early evening.

Some species go through a seasonal change of form (cyclomorphosis) which is not fully understood. It may have an effect in reducing predation.

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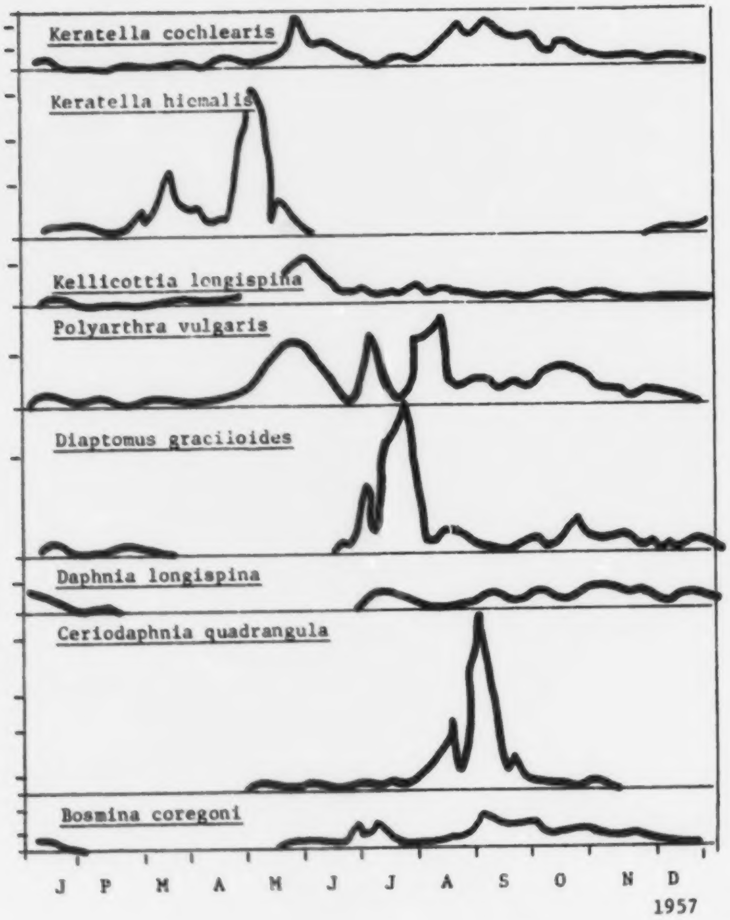
This outline was prepared by W. T. Edmondson, Professor of Zoology, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington.

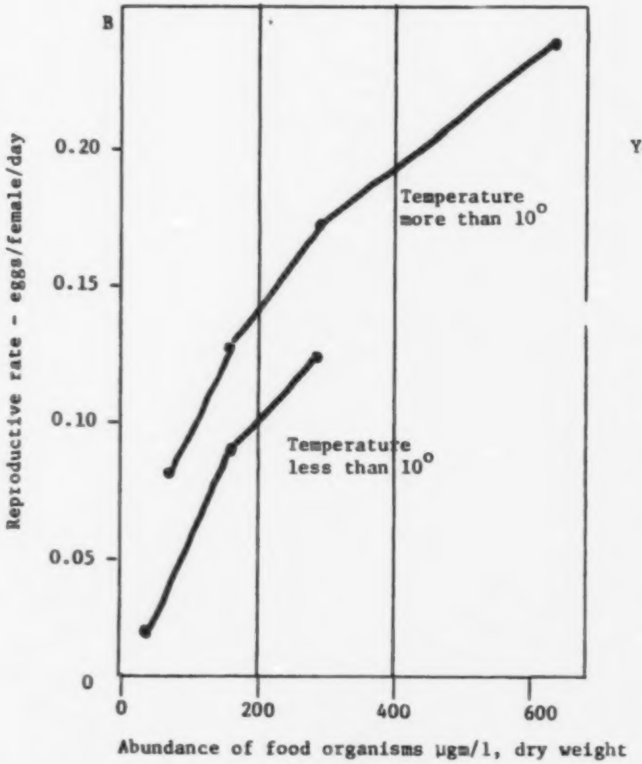
Descriptor: Zooplankton

FIGURE 1 SEASONAL CHANGES OF ZOOPLANKTON IN LAKE ERKEN, SWEDEN

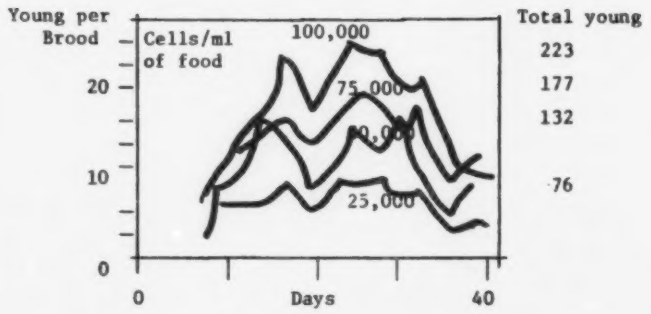


Each panel shows the abundance of a species of animal. Each mark on the vertical axis represents 10 individuals/liter. Nauwerck, A. 1963. Die Beziehungen zwischen Zooplankton und Phytoplankton im See Erken. Symbolae Botanicae Upsalienses, 17:1-163.

FIGURE 2 REPRODUCTIVE RATE OF ZOOPLANKTON AS A FUNCTION OF ABUNDANCE OF FOOD

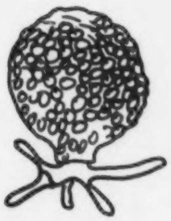


Mean rate of laying eggs by the planktonic rotifer Keratella cochlearis in natural populations as a function of abundance of food organisms and temperature. W. T. Edmonson. 1965. Reproductive rate of planktonic rotifers as related to food and temperature in nature. Ecol. Mmogr. 35: 61-111.



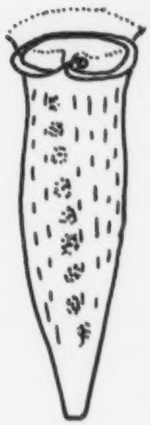
Number of young produced in each brood by Daphnia living in four different concentrations of food organisms, renewed daily. The total number produced during the life of a mother is shown by the numbers at the right. The Daphnia at the two lowest concentrations produced their first batch of eggs on the same day as the others, but the eggs degenerated, and the first viable eggs were released two days later. Richman, S. 1958. The transformation of energy by Daphnia pulex. Ecol. Monogr. 28: 273-291.

PROTOZOA

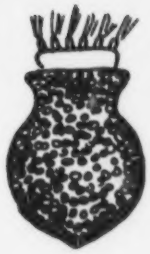


Difflugia

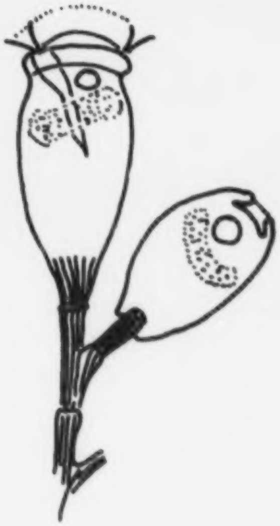
Amoebae



Stentor



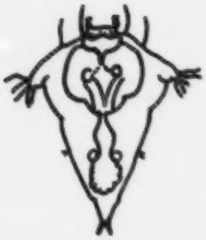
Codonella



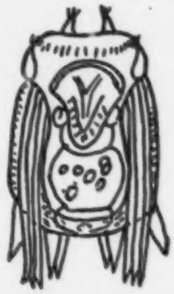
Epistylis

Ciliates

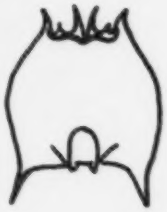
ROTIFERA



Synchaeta



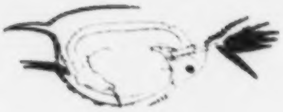
Polygarthra



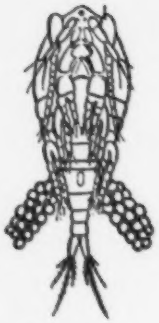
Brachionus

ARTHROPODA

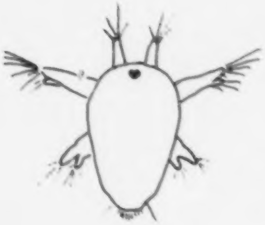
Crustacea



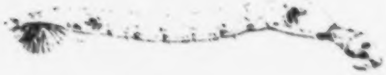
Cladocera



Copepoda

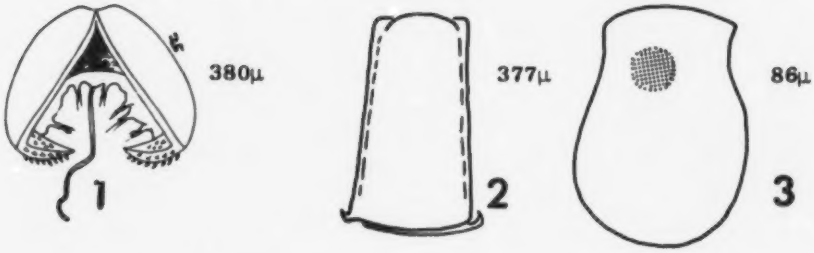


Nauplius larva of copepod



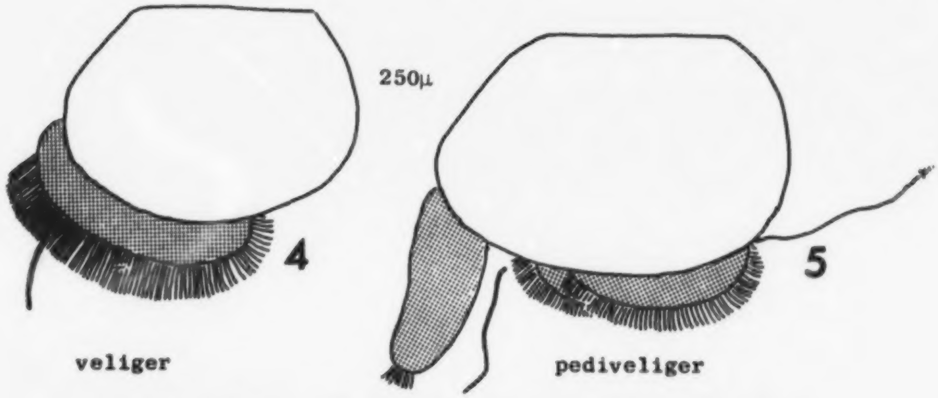
Insecta - *Chaoborus*

PLANKTONIC BIVALVE LARVAE



spined (fin attached)   simple (gill attached)

Glochidia (Unionidae) Fish Parasites
(1-3)



veliger   pediveliger

Veliger Larvae (Corbiculidae) Free Living Planktonic
(4-5)

Pediveliger attaches byssus lines)

OPTICS AND THE MICROSCOPE

I OPTICS

An understanding of elementary optics is essential to the proper use of the microscope. The microscopist will find that unusual problems in illumination and photomicrography can be handled much more effectively once the underlying ideas in physical optics are understood.

A Reflection

A good place to begin is with reflection at a surface or interface. Specular (or regular) reflection results when a beam of light leaves a surface at the same angle at which it reached it. This type of reflection occurs with highly polished smooth surfaces. It is stated more precisely as Snell's Law, i.e., the angle of incidence, i, is equal to the angle of reflection, r (Figure 1). Diffuse (or scattered) reflection results when a beam of light strikes a rough or irregular surface and different portions of the incident light are reflected from the surface at different angles. The light reflected from a piece of white paper or a ground glass is an example of diffuse reflection.

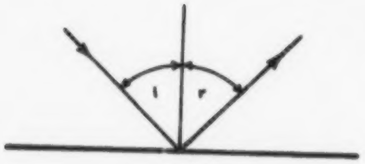


Figure 1

SPECULAR REFLECTION - SNELL'S LAW

Strictly speaking, of course, all reflected light, even diffuse, obeys Snell's Law. Diffuse reflected light is made up of many specularly reflected rays, each from a a tiny element of surface, and appears diffuse when the reflecting elements are very numerous and very small. The terms diffuse and specular, referring to reflection, describe not so much a difference in the nature of the reflection but rather a difference in the type of surface. A polished surface gives specular reflection; a rough surface gives diffuse reflection.

It is also important to note and remember that specularly reflected light tends to be strongly polarized in the plane of the reflecting surface. This is due to the fact that those rays whose vibration directions lie closest to the plane of the reflection surface are most strongly reflected. This effect is strongest when the angle of incidence is such that the tangent of the angle is equal to the refractive index of the reflecting surface. This particular angle of incidence is called the Brewster angle.

B Image Formation on Reflection

Considering reflection by mirrors, we find (Figure 2) that a plane mirror forms a virtual image behind the mirror, reversed right to left but of the same size as the object. The word virtual means that the image appears to be in a given plane but that a ground glass screen or a photographic film placed in that plane would show no image. The converse of a virtual image is a real image.

Spherical mirrors are either convex or concave with the surface of the mirror representing a portion of the surface of a sphere. The center of curvature is the center of the sphere, part of whose surface forms the mirror. The focus lies halfway between the center of curvature and the mirror surface.

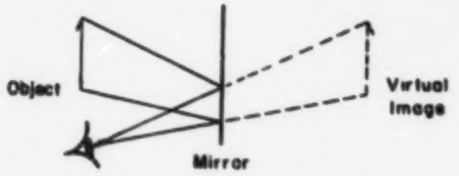


Figure 2

IMAGE FORMATION BY PLANE MIRROR

Construction of an image by a concave mirror follows from the two premises given below (Figure 3):

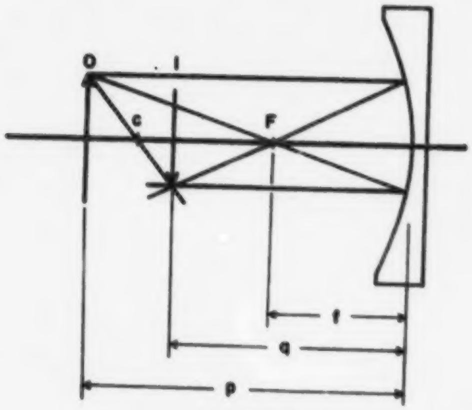


Figure 3

IMAGE FORMATION BY CONCAVE MIRROR

1 A ray of light parallel to the axis of the mirror must pass through the focus after reflection.

2 A ray of light which passes through the center of curvature must return along the same path.

A corollary of the first premise is:

3 A ray of light which passes through the focus is reflected parallel to the axis of the mirror.

The image from an object can be located using the familiar lens formula:

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} \qquad \frac{1}{f}$$

where p = distance from the object to the mirror
q = distance from the image to the mirror
f = focal length

C Spherical Aberration

No spherical surface can be perfect in its image-forming ability. The most serious of the imperfections, spherical aberration, occurs in spherical mirrors of large aperture (Figure 4). The rays of light making up an image point from the outer zone of a spherical mirror do not pass through the same point as the more central rays. This type of aberration is reduced by blocking the outer zone rays from the image area or by using aspheric surfaces.

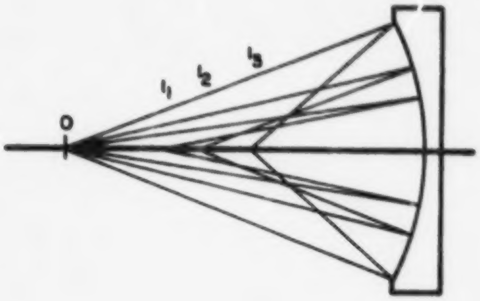


Figure 4

SPHERICAL ABERRATION BY SPHERICAL MIRROR

D Refraction of Light

Turning now to lenses rather than mirrors we find that the most important characteristic is refraction. Refraction refers to the change of direction and/or velocity of light as it passes from one medium to another. The ratio of the velocity in air (or more correctly in a vacuum) to the velocity in the medium is called the refractive index. Some typical values of refractive index measured with monochromatic light (sodium D line) are listed in Table 1.

Refraction causes an object immersed in a medium of higher refractive index than air to appear closer to the surface than it actually is (Figure 5). This effect may be used to determine the refractive index of a liquid with the microscope. A flat vial with a scratch on the bottom (inside) is placed on the stage of the microscope. The microscope is focused on the scratch and the fine adjustment micrometer reading is noted. A small amount of the unknown liquid is added; the scratch is again brought into focus and the new micrometer reading is taken. Finally, the microscope is refocused until the surface of the liquid appears in sharp focus. The micrometer reading is taken again and, with this information, the refractive index may be calculated from the simplified equation:

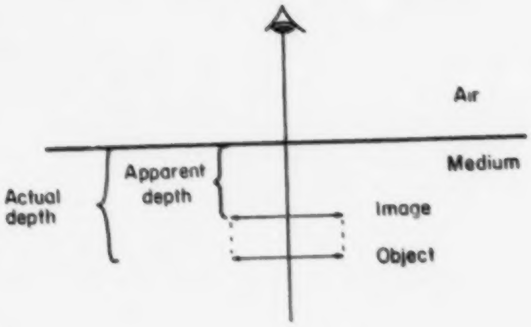


Figure 5

REFRACTION OF LIGHT AT INTERFACE

$$\text{refractive index} = \frac{\text{actual depth}}{\text{apparent depth}}$$

Table 1. REFRACTIVE INDICES OF COMMON MATERIALS MEASURED WITH SODIUM LIGHT

Vacuum	1.0000000	Crown glass	1.48 to 1.61
Air	1.0002918	Rock salt	1.5443
CO_2	1.0004498	Diamond	2.417
Water	1.3330	Lead sulfide	3.912

When the situation is reversed, and a ray of light from a medium of high refractive index passes through the interface of a medium of lower index, the ray is refracted until a critical angle is reached beyond which all of the light is reflected from the interface (Figure 6). This critical angle, C, has the following relationship to the refractive indices of the two media:

$$\sin C = \frac{n_2}{n_1}, \text{ where } n_2 < n_1.$$

When the second medium is air, the formula becomes:

$$\sin C = \frac{1}{n_1}.$$

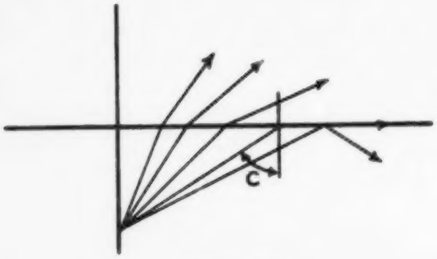


Figure 6

REFLECTION AT CRITICAL ANGLE

E Dispersion

Dispersion is another important property of transparent materials. This is the variation of refractive index with color (or wavelength) of light. When white light passes through a glass prism, the light rays are refracted by different amounts and separated into the colors of the spectrum. This spreading of light into its component colors is due to dispersion which, in turn, is due to the fact that the refractive index of transparent substances, liquids and solids, is lower for long wavelengths than for short wavelengths.

Because of dispersion, determination of the refractive index of a substance requires designation of the particular wavelength used. Light from a sodium lamp has a strong, closely spaced doublet with an average wavelength of 5893A, called the D line, which is commonly used as a reference wavelength. Table 2 illustrates the change of refractive index with wavelength for a few common substances.

Table 2. DISPERSION OF REFRACTIVE INDICES OF SEVERAL COMMON MATERIALS

	Refractive index		
	F line blue 4861A	D line (yellow) 5893A	C line (red) 6563A
Carbon disulfide	1.6523	1.6276	1.6182
Crown glass	1.5240	1.5172	1.5145
Flint glass	1.6391	1.6270	1.6221
Water	1.3372	1.3330	1.3312

The dispersion of a material can be defined quantitatively as:

$$\nu = \text{dispersion} = \frac{n\ (\text{yellow}) - 1}{n\ (\text{blue}) - n\ (\text{red})}$$

$$= \frac{n\ (593\text{m}\mu) - 1}{n\ (486\text{m}\mu) - n(656\text{m}\mu)}$$

where n is the refractive index of the material at the particular wavelength noted in the parentneses.

F Lenses

There are two classes of lenses, converging and diverging, called also convex and concave, respectively. The focal point of a converging lens is defined as the point at which a bundle of light rays parallel to the axis of the lens appears to converge after passing through the lens. The focal length of the lens is the distance from the lens to the focal point (Figure 7).

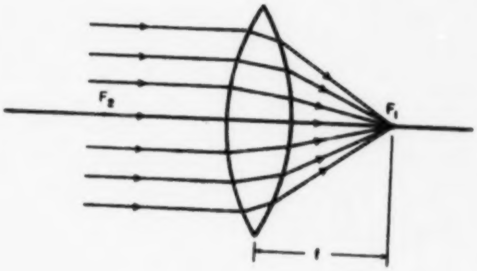


Figure 7

CONVERGENCE OF LIGHT AT FOCAL POINT

G Image Formation by Refraction

Image formation by lenses (Figure 8) follows rules analogous to those already given above for mirrors:

1 Light traveling parallel to the axis of the lens will be refracted so as to pass through the focus of the lens.

2 Light traveling through the geometrical center of the lens will be unrefracted.

The position of the image can be determined by remembering that a light ray passing through the focus, F, will be parallel to the axis of the lens on the opposite side of the lens and that a ray passing through the geometrical center of the lens will be unrefracted.

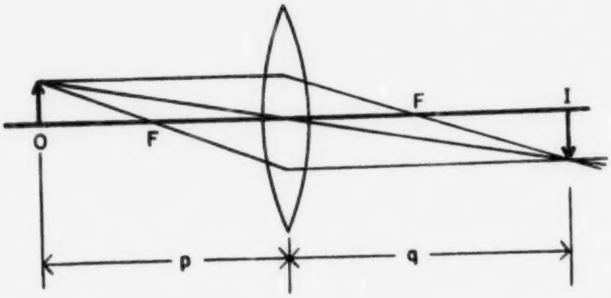


Figure 8

IMAGE FORMATION BY A CONVEX LENS

The magnification, M, of an image of an object produced by a lens is given by the relationship:

$$M = \frac{\text{image size}}{\text{object size}} = \frac{\text{image distance}}{\text{object distance}} = \frac{q}{p}$$

where q = distance from image to lens
and p = distance from object to lens.

H Aberrations of Lenses

Lenses have aberrations of several types which, unless corrected, cause loss of detail in the image. Spherical aberration appears in lenses with spherical surfaces. Reduction of spherical aberration can be accomplished by diaphragming the outer zones of the lens or by designing special aspherical surfaces in the lens system.

Chromatic aberration is a phenomenon caused by the variation of refractive index with wavelength (dispersion). Thus a lens receiving white light from an object will form a violet image closer to the lens and a red one farther away. Achromatic lenses are employed to minimize this effect. The lenses are combinations of two or more lens elements made up of two or more lens elements made up of materials having different dispersive powers. The use of monochromatic light is another obvious way of eliminating chromatic aberration.

Astigmatism is a third aberration of spherical lens systems It occurs when object points are not located on the optical axis of the lens and results in the formation of an indistinct image. The simplest remedy for astigmatism is to place the object close to the axis of the lens system.

I Interference Phenomena

Interference and diffraction are two phenomena which are due to the wave characteristics of light. The superposition of two light rays arriving simultaneously at a given point will give rise to interference effects, whereby the intensity at that point will vary from dark to bright depending on the phase differences between the two light rays.

The first requirement for interference is that the light must come from a single source. The light may be split into any number of paths but must originate from the same point (or coherent source). Two light waves from a coherent source arriving at a point in phase agreement will reinforce each other (Figure 9a). Two light waves from a coherent source arriving at a point in opposite phase will cancel each other (Figure 9b).

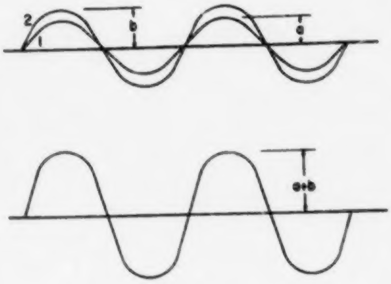


Figure 9a. Two light rays, 1 and 2, of the same frequency but different amplitudes, are in phase in the upper diagram. In the lower diagram, rays 1 and 2 interfere constructively to give a single wave of the same frequency and with an amplitude equal to the summation of the two former waves.

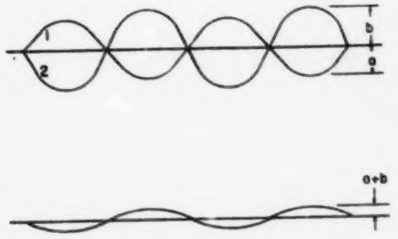


Figure 9b. Rays 1 and 2 are now 180° out of phase and interfere destructively. The resultant, in the bottom diagram, is of the same frequency but is of reduced amplitude (a is negative and is subtracted from b).

The reflection of a monochromatic light beam by a thin film results in two beams, one reflected from the top surface and one from the bottom surface. The distance traveled by the latter beam in excess of the first is twice the thickness of the film and its equivalent air path is:

$$2\,nt$$

where n is the refractive index and t is the thickness of the film.

The second beam, however, upon reflection at the bottom surface, undergoes a half wavelength shift and now the total retardation of the second beam with respect to the first is given as:

$$\text{retardation} = 2\,nt + \frac{\lambda}{2}$$

where λ is the wavelength of the light beam.

When retardation is exactly an odd number of half wavelengths, destructive interference takes place resulting in darkness. When it is zero or an even number of half wavelengths, constructive interference results in brightness (Figure 10).

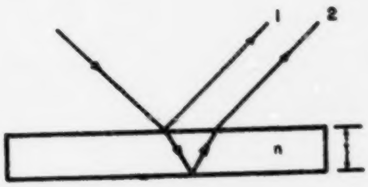


Figure 10

INTERFERENCE IN A THIN FILM

A simple interferometer can be made by partially silvering a microscope slide and cover slip. A preparation between the two partially silvered surfaces will show interference fringes when viewed with monochromatic light, either transmitted or by vertical illuminator. The fringes will be close together with a wedge-shaped preparation and will reflect refractive index differences due to temperature variations, concentration differences, different solid phases, etc. The method has been used to measure quantitatively the concentration of solute around a growing crystal[1] (Figure 11).

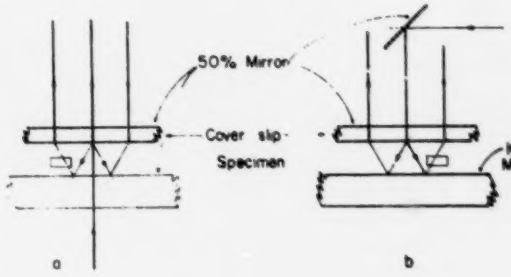


Figure 11

MICROSCOPICAL METHOD OF VIEWING INTERFERENCE IMAGES

a Examination is by transmitted light. Light ray undergoes multiple reflections and produces dark and light fringes in the field. A specimen introduces a phase shift and changes the fringe pattern.

b Illumination is from the top. The principle is the same but fringes show greater contrast.

Each dark band represents an equivalent air thickness of an odd number of half wavelengths. Conversely, each bright band is the result of an even number of half wavelengths.

With interference illumination, the effect of a transparent object of different refractive index than the medium in the microscope field is:

1 a change of light intensity of the object if the background is uniformly illuminated (parallel cover slip), or

2 a shift of the interference bands within the object if the background consists of bands (tilted cover slip).

The relationship of refractive indices of the surrounding medium and the object is as follows:

$$n_s = n_m\left(1 + \frac{\theta\lambda}{360t}\right)$$

where n_s = refractive index of the specimen
n_m = refractive index of the surrounding medium
θ = phase shift of the two beams, degrees
λ = wavelength of the light
t = thickness of the specimen.

J Diffraction

In geometrical optics, it is assumed that light travels in straight lines. This is not always true. We note that a beam passing through a slit toward a screen creates a bright band wider than the slit with alternate bright and dark bands appearing on either side of the central bright band, decreasing in intensity as a function of the distance from the center. Diffraction describes this phenomenon and, as one of its practical consequences, limits the lens in its ability to reproduce an image. For example, the image of a pin point of light produced by a lens is not a pin point but is revealed to be a somewhat larger patch of light surrounded by dark and bright rings. The diameter, d, of this diffraction disc (to the first dark ring) is given as:

$$d = \frac{2.44\, f\lambda}{D}$$

where f is the focal length of the lens, λ the wavelength, and D the diameter of the lens.

It is seen that in order to maintain a small diffraction disc at a given wavelength, the diameter of the lens should be as large as possible with respect to the focal length. It should be noted, also, that a shorter wavelength produces a smaller disc.

If two pin points of light are to be distinguished in an image, their diffraction discs must not overlap more than one half their diameters. The ability to distinguish such image points is called resolving power and is expressed as one half of the preceding expression:

$$\text{resolving power} = \frac{1.22\, f\lambda}{D}.$$

II THE COMPOUND MICROSCOPE

The compound microscope is an extension in principle of the simple magnifying glass; hence it is essential to understand fully the properties of this simple lens system.

A Image Formation by the Simple Magnifier

The apparent size of an object is determined by the angle that is formed at the eye by the extreme rays of the object. By bringing the object closer to the eye, that angle (called the visual angle) is increased. This also increases the apparent size. However a limit of accommodation of the eye is reached, at which distance the eye can no longer focus. This limiting distance is about 10 inches or 25 centimeters. It is at this distance that the magnification of an object observed by the unaided eye is said to be unity. The eye can, of course, be focused at shorter distances but not usually in a relaxed condition.

A positive, or converging, lens can be used to permit placing an object closer than 10 inches to the eye (Figure 12). By this means the visual angle of the object is increased (as is its apparent size) while the image of

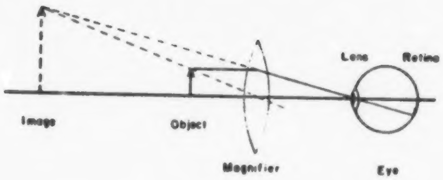


Figure 12

VIRTUAL IMAGE FORMATION BY CONVEX LENS

the object appears to be 10 inches from the eye, where it is best accommodated.

B Magnification by a Single Lens System

The magnification, M, of a simple magnifying glass is given by:

$$M = \frac{25}{f} + 1$$

where f = focal length of the lens in centimeters.

Theoretically the magnification can be increased with shorter focal length lenses. However such lenses require placing the eye very close to the lens surface and have much image distortion and other optical aberrations. The practical limit for a simple magnifying glass is about 20X.

In order to go to magnifications higher than 20X, the compound microscope is required. Two lens systems are used to form an enlarged image of an object (Figure 13). This is accomplished in two steps, the first by a lens called the objective and the second by a lens known as the eyepiece (or ocular).

C The Objective

The objective is the lens (or lens system) closest to the object. Its function is to reproduce an enlarged image of the object in the body tube of the microscope. Objectives are available in various focal lengths to give different magnifications (Table 3). The magnification is calculated from the focal length by dividing the latter into the tube length, usually 160 mm.

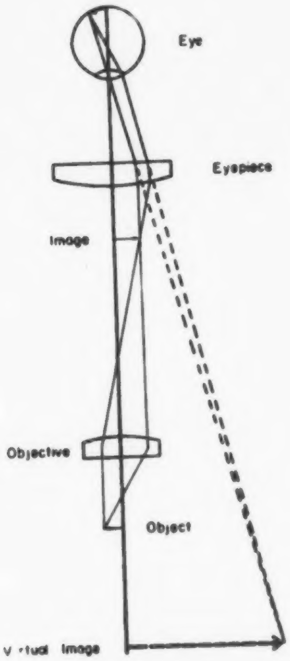


Figure 13

IMAGE FORMATION IN COMPOUND MICROSCOPE

The numerical aperture (N. A.) is a measure of the ability of an objective to resolve detail. This is more fully discussed in the next section. The working distance is in the free space between the objective and the cover slip and varies slightly for objectives of the same focal length depending upon the degree of correction and the manufacturer.

There are three basic classifications of objectives: achromats, fluorites and apochromats, listed in the order of their complexity. The achromats are good for routine work while the fluorites and apochromats offer additional optical corrections to compensate for spherical, chromatic and other aberrations.

Table 3. NOMINAL CHARACTERISTICS OF USUAL MICROSCOPE OBJECTIVES

Nominal focal length mm	Nominal magnif.	N. A.	Working distance mm	Depth focus μ	Diam. of field mm.	Resolving power, white light, μ	Maximum useful magnif.	Eyepiece for max. useful magnif.
56	2.5X	0.08	40	50	8.5	4.4	80X	30X
32	5	0.10	25	16	5	3.9	90X	20X
16	10	0.25	7	8	2	1.4	250X	25X
8	20	0.50	1.3	2	1	0.7	500X	25X
4	43	0.66	0.7	1	0.5	0.4	660X	15X
4	45	0.85	0.5	1	0.4	0.35	850X	20X
1.8	90	1.30	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.21	1250X	12X

Another system of objectives employs reflecting surfaces in the shape of concave and convex mirrors. Reflection optics, because they have no refracting elements, do not suffer from chromatic aberrations as ordinary refraction objectives do. Based entirely on reflection, reflecting objectives are extremely useful in the infrared and ultraviolet regions of the spectrum. They also have a much longer working distance than the refracting objectives.

The body tube of the microscope supports the objective at the bottom (over the object) and the eyepiece at the top. The tube length is maintained at 160 mm except for Leitz instruments, which have a 170-mm tube length.

The objective support may be of two kinds, an objective clutch changer or a rotating nosepiece:

1 The objective clutch changer ("quick-change" holder) permits the mounting of only one objective at a time on the microscope. It has a centering arrangement, so that each objective need be centered only once with respect to the stage rotation. The changing of objectives with this system is somewhat awkward compared with the rotating nosepiece.

2 The revolving nosepiece allows mounting three or four objectives on the microscope at one time (there are some nosepieces that accept five and even six objectives). In this system, the objectives are usually noncenterable and the stage is centerable. Several manufacturers provide centerable objective mounts so that each objective on the nosepiece need be centered only once to the fixed rotating stage. The insides of objectives are better protected from dust by the rotating nosepiece. This, as well as the inconvenience of the so-called "quick-change" objective holder, makes it worthwhile to have one's microscope fitted with rotating nosepiece.

D The Ocular

The eyepiece, or ocular, is necessary in the second step of the magnification process. The eyepiece functions as a simple magnifier viewing the image formed by the objective.

There are three classes of eyepieces in common use: huyghenian, compensating and flat-field. The huyghenian (or huyghens) eyepiece is designed to be used with achromats while the compensating type is used with fluorite and apochromatic objectives. Flat-field eyepieces, as the name implies, are employed in photomicrography or projection and can be used with most objectives. It is best to follow the recommendations of the manufacturer as to the proper combination of objective and eyepiece.

The usual magnifications available in oculars run from about 6X up to 25 or 30X. The 6X is generally too low to be of any real value while the 25 and 30X oculars have slightly poorer imagery than medium powers and have a very low eyepoint. The most useful eyepieces lie in the 10 to 20X magnification range.

E Magnification of the Microscope

The total magnification of the objective-eyepiece combination is simply the product of the two individual magnifications. A convenient working rule to assist in the proper choice of eyepieces states that the maximum useful magnification (MUM) for the microscope is 1,000 times the numerical aperture (N.A.) of the objective. The MUM is related to resolving power in that magnification in excess of MUM gives little or no additional resolving power and results in what is termed empty magnification. Table 4 shows the results of such combinations and a comparison with the 1000X N.A. rule. The underlined figure shows the magnification nearest to the MUM and the eyepiece required with each objective to achieve the MUM. From this table it is apparent that only higher power eyepieces can give full use of the resolving power of the objectives. It is obvious that a 10X, or even a 15X, eyepiece gives insufficient magnification for the eye to see detail actually resolved by the objective.

F Focusing the Microscope

The coarse adjustment is used to roughly position the body tube (in some newer microscopes, the stage) to bring the image into focus. The fine adjustment is used after the coarse adjustment to bring the image into perfect focus and to maintain the focus as the slide is moved across the stage. Most microscope objectives are parfocal so that once they are focused any other objective can be swung into position without the necessity of refocusing except with the fine adjustment.

The student of the microscope should first learn to focus in the following fashion, to prevent damage to a specimen or objective:

1 Raise the body tube and place the specimen on the stage.

2 Never focus the body tube down (or the stage up) while observing the field through the eyepiece.

3 Lower the body tube (or raise the stage) with the coarse adjustment while carefully observing the space between the

Table 4. MICROSCOPE MAGNIFICATION CALCULATED FOR VARIOUS OBJECTIVE-EYEPIECE COMBINATIONS

Objective Focal length	Objective Magnification	Eyepiece 5X	Eyepiece 10X	Eyepiece 15X	Eyepiece 20X	Eyepiece 25X	MUM[a] (1000 NA)
56mm	3X	15X	30X	45X	60X	75X	80X
32	5	25X	50X	75X	100X	125X	100X
16	10	50X	100X	150X	200X	250X	250X
8	20	100X	200X	300X	400X	500X	500X
4	40	200X	400X	600X	800X	1000X	660X
1.8	90	450X	900X	1350X	1800X	2250X	1250X

[a] MUM = maximum useful magnification

objective and slide and permitting the two to come close together without touching.

4 Looking through the microscope and turning the fine adjustment in such a way as to move the objective away from the specimen, bring the image into sharp focus.

The fine adjustment is usually calibrated in one- or two-micron steps to indicate the vertical movement of the body tube. This feature is useful in making depth measurements but should not be relied upon for accuracy.

G The Substage Condenser

The substage holds the condenser and polarizer. It can usually be focused in a vertical direction so that the condenser can be brought into the correct position with respect to the specimen for proper illumination. In some models, the condenser is centerable so that it may be set exactly in the axis of rotation of the stage; otherwise it will have been precentered at the factory and should be permanent.

H The Microscope Stage

The stage of the microscope supports the specimen between the condenser and objective, and may offer a mechanical stage as an attachment to provide a means of moving the slide methodically during observation. The polarizing microscope is fitted with a circular rotating stage to which a mechanical stage may be added. The rotating stage, which is used for object orientation to observe optical effects, will have centering screws if the objectives are not centerable, or vice versa. It is undesirable to have both objectives and stage centerable as this does not provide a fixed reference axis.

I The Polarizing Elements

A polarizer is fitted to the condenser of all polarizing microscopes. In routine instruments, the polarizer is fixed with its vibration direction oriented north-south (east-west for most European instruments) while in research microscopes, the polarizer can be rotated. Modern instruments have polarizing filters (such as Polaroid) replacing the older calcite prisms. Polarizing filters are preferred because they:

1 are low-cost;

2 require no maintenance;

3 permit use of the full condenser aperture.

An analyzer, of the same construction as the polarizer, is fitted in the body tube of the microscope on a slider so that it may be easily removed from the optical path. It is oriented with its plane of vibration perpendicular to the corresponding direction of the polarizer.

J The Bertrand Lens

The Bertrand lens is usually found only on the polarizing microscope although some manufacturers are beginning to include it on phase microscopes. It is located in the body tube above the analyzer on a slider (or pivot) to permit quick removal from the optical path. The Bertrand lens is used to observe the back focal plane of the objective. It is convenient for checking quickly the type and quality of illumination, for observing interference figures of crystals, for adjusting the phase annuli in phase microscopy and for adjusting the annular and central stops in dispersion staining.

K The Compensator Slot

The compensator slot receives compensators (quarter-wave, first-order red and quartz-wedge) for observation of the optical properties of crystalline materials. It is usually placed at the lower end of the body tube just above the objective mount, and is oriented 45° from the vibration directions of the polarizer and analyzer.

L The Stereoscopic Microscope

The stereoscopic microscope, also called the binocular, wide-field, dissecting or

Greenough binocular microscope, is in reality a combination of two separate compound microscopes. The two microscopes, usually mounted in one body, have their optical axes inclined from the vertical by about 7° and from each other by twice this angle. When an object is placed on the stage of a stereoscopic microscope, the optical systems view it from slightly different angles, presenting a stereoscopic pair of images to the eyes, which fuse the two into a single three-dimensional image.

The objectives are supplied in pairs, either as separate units to be mounted on the microscope or, as in the new instruments, built into a rotating drum. Bausch and Lomb was the first manufacturer to have a zoom lens system which gives a continuous change in magnification over the full range. Objectives for the stereomicroscope run from about 0.4X to 12X, well below the magnification range of objectives available for single-objective microscopes.

The eyepieces supplied with stereoscopic microscopes run from 10 to 25X and have wider fields than their counterparts in the single-objective microscopes.

Because of mechanical limitations, the stereomicroscope is limited to about 200X magnification and usually does not permit more than about 120X. It is most useful at relatively low powers in observing shape and surface texture, relegating the study of greater detail to the monocular microscope. The stereomicroscope is also helpful in manipulating small samples, separating ingredients of mixtures, preparing specimens for detailed study at higher magnifications and performing various mechanical operations under microscopical observation, e. g. micromanipulation.

III ILLUMINATION AND RESOLVING POWER

Good resolving power and optimum specimen contrast are prerequisites for good microscopy. Assuming the availability of suitable optics (ocular, objectives and substage condenser) it is still of paramount importance to use proper illumination. The requirement for a good illumination system for the microscope is to have uniform intensity of illumination over the entire field of view with independent control of intensity and of the angular aperture of the illuminating cone.

A Basic Types of Illumination

There are three types of illumination (Table 5) used generally:

1 Critical. This is used when high levels of illumination intensity are necessary for oil immersion, darkfield, fluorescence, low birefringence or photomicrographic studies. Since the lamp filament is imaged in the plane of the specimen, a ribbon filament or arc lamp is required. The lamp must be focusable and have an iris diaphragm; the position of the filament must also be adjustable in all directions.

2 Köhler. Also useful for intense illumination, Köhler illumination may be obtained with any lamp not fitted with a ground glass. The illuminator must, however, be focusable, it must have an adjustable field diaphragm (iris) and the lamp filament position must be adjustable in all directions.

3 "Poor man's". So-called because a low-priced illuminator may be used, this method gives illumination of high quality although of lower intensity because of the presence of a ground glass in the system. No adjustments are necessary on the illuminator or lamp filament although an adjustable diaphragm on the illuminator is helpful.

All three types of illumination require that the microscope substage condenser focus the image of the illuminator aperture in the plane of the specimen. In each case, then, the lamp iris acts as a field diaphragm and should be closed to just illuminate the field of view. The differences in these three types of illumination lie in the adjustment of the lamp condensing lens. With poor man's illumination there is no lamp condenser, hence no adjustment. The lamp should be placed close to the microscope so that

Table 5. COMPARISON OF CRITICAL, KÖHLER AND POOR MAN'S ILLUMINATION

	Critical	Köhler	Poor man's
Lamp filament	ribbon filament	any type	any type
Lamp condensing lens	required	required	none
Lamp iris	required	required	useful
Ground glass at lamp	none	none	present
Image of light source	in object plane	at substage iris	none
Image of field iris	near object plane	in object plane	near object plane
Image of substage iris	back focal plane of objective	back focal plane of objective	back focal plane of objective

the entire field of view is always illuminated. If the surface structure of the ground glass becomes apparent in the field of view the substage condenser is very slightly defocused.

Critical Illumination

With critical illumination the lamp condenser is focused to give parallel rays; focusing the lamp filament on a far wall is sufficient. Aimed, then, at the substage mirror, the substage condenser will focus the lamp filament in the object plane. The substage condenser iris will now be found imaged in the back focal plane of the objective; it serves as a control over convergence of the illumination. Although the substage iris also affects the light intensity over the field of view it should most decidedly not be used for this purpose. The intensity of illumination may be varied by the use of neutral density filters and, unless color photomicrography is anticipated, by the use of variable voltage on the lamp filament.

Köhler illumination (Figure 14) differs from critical illumination in the use of the lamp condenser. With critical illumination the lamp condenser focuses the lamp filament at infinity; with Kohler illumination the lamp filament is focused in the plane of the substage condenser iris (also coincident with the anterior focal plane of the substage condenser). The functions of the lamp condenser iris and the substage condenser iris in controlling, respectively, the area of the illuminated field of view and the angular aperture of the illuminating cone are precisely alike for all three types of illumination.

Critical illumination is seldom used because it requires a special lamp filament and because, when used, it shows no advantage over well-adjusted Köhler illumination.

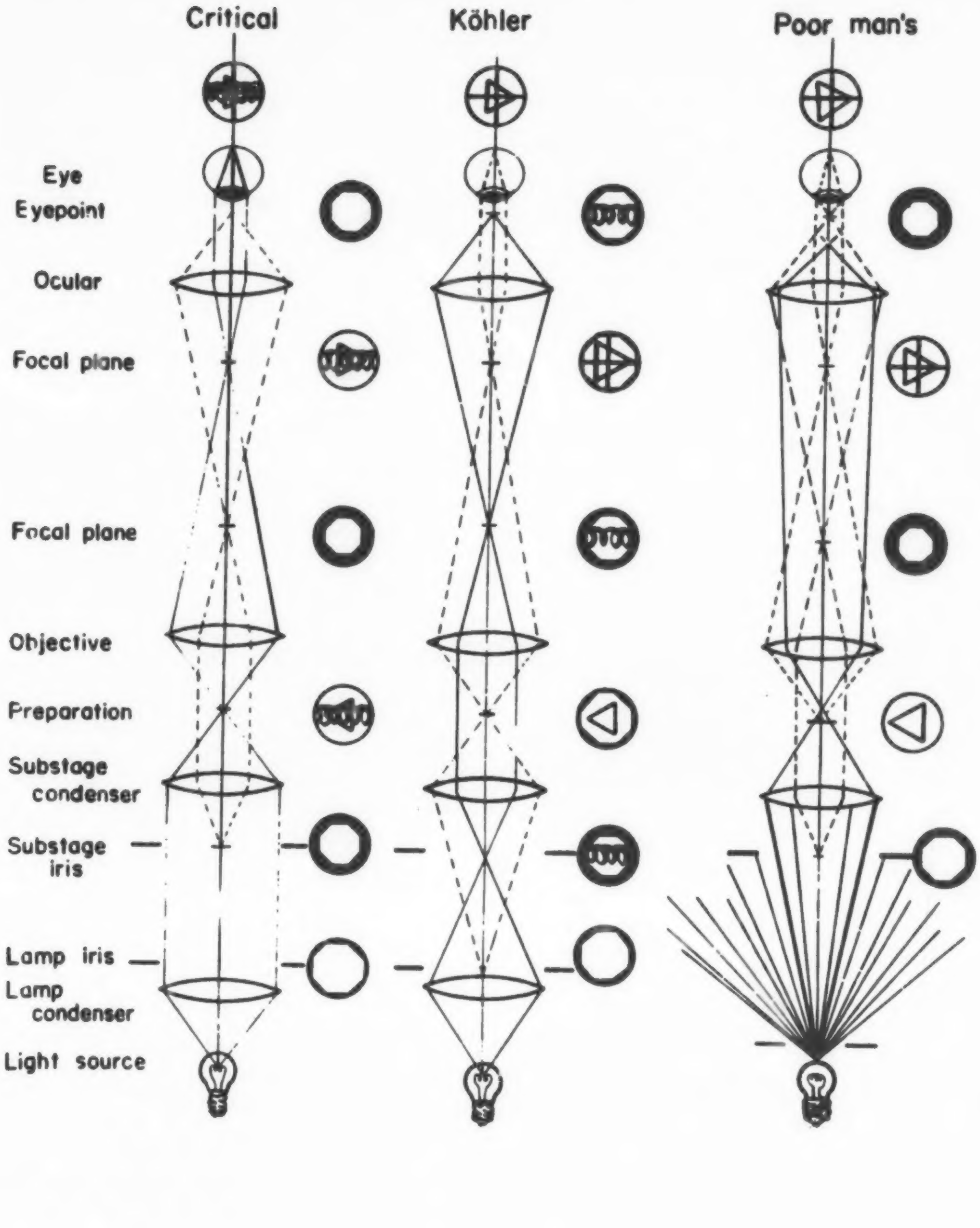
Köhler Illumination

To arrange the microscope and illuminator for Köhler illumination it is well to proceed through the following steps:

a Remove the diffusers and filters from the lamp.

b Turn the lamp on and aim at a convenient wall or vertical screen about 19 inches away. Open the lamp diaphragm.

c By moving the lamp condenser, focus a sharp image of the filament. It should be of such a size as to fill, not necessarily evenly, the microscope


Critical
Köhler
Poor man's
Eye
Eyepoint
Ocular
Focal plane
Focal plane
Objective
Preparation
Substage condenser
Substage iris
Lamp iris
Lamp condenser
Light source

substage condenser opening. If it does not, move the lamp away from the wall to enlarge the filament image; refocus.

d Turn the lamp and aim it at the microscope mirror so as to maintain the same 18 inches (or adjusted lamp distance).

e Place a specimen on the microscope stage and focus sharply with a 16-mm (10X) objective. Open fully the aperture diaphragm in the substage condenser. If the light is too bright, temporarily place a neutral density filter or a diffuser in the lamp.

f Close the lamp diaphragm, or field diaphragm, to about a 1-cm opening. Rack the microscope substage condenser up and down to focus the field diaphragm sharply in the same plane as the specimen.

g Adjust the mirror to center the field diaphragm in the field of view.

h Remove the 16-mm objective and replace with a 4-mm objective. Move the specimen so that a clear area is under observation. Place the Bertrand lens in the optical path, or remove the eyepiece and insert an auxiliary telescope (sold with phase contrast accessories) in its place, or remove the eyepiece and observe the back aperture of the objective directly. Remove any ground glass diffusers from the lamp. Now observe the lamp filament through the microscope.

i If the filament does not appear to be centered, swing the lamp housing in a horizontal arc whose center is at the field diaphragm. The purpose is to maintain the field diaphragm on the lamp in its centered position. If a vertical movement of the filament is required, loosen the bulb base and slide it up or down. If the base is fixed, tilt the lamp housing in a vertical arc with the field diaphragm as the center of movement (again endeavoring to keep the lamp diaphragm in the centered position). If you have mastered this step, you have accomplished the most difficult portion. (Better microscope lamps have adjustments to move the bulb independently of the lamp housing to simplify this step.)

j Put the specimen in place, replace the eyepiece and the desired objective and refocus.

k Open or close the field diaphragm until it just disappears from the field.

l Observe the back aperture of the objective, preferably with the Bertrand lens or the auxiliary telescope, and close the aperture diaphragm on the substage condenser until it is about four-fifths the diameter of the back aperture. This is the best position for the aperture diaphragm, a position which minimizes glare and maximizes the resolving power. It is instructive to vary the aperture diaphragm and observe the image critically during the manipulation.

m If the illumination is too great, insert an appropriate neutral density filter between the illuminator and the condenser. Do not use the condenser aperture diaphragm or the lamp field diaphragm to control the intensity of illumination.

Poor Man's Illumination

Both critical and Köhler illumination require expensive illuminators with adjustable focus, lamp iris and adjustable lamp mounts. Poor man's illumination requires a cheap illuminator although an expensive illuminator may be used if its expensive features are negated by inserting a ground glass diffuser or by using a frosted bulb. Admittedly an iris diaphragm on the lamp would be a help though it is not necessary.

a The illuminator must have a frosted bulb or a ground glass diffuser.

It should be possible to direct it in the general direction of the substage mirror, very close thereto or in place thereof.

b Focus on any preparation after tilting the mirror to illuminate the field.

c Remove the top lens of the condenser and, by racking the condenser up or, more often, down, bring into focus (in the same plane as the specimen) a finger, pencil or other object placed in the same general region as the ground glass diffuser on the lamp. The glass surface itself can then be focused in the plane of the specimen.

d Ideally the ground glass surface will just fill the field of view when centered by the substage mirror; adjustment may be made by moving the lamp closer to or farther from the microscope (the position might be marked for each objective used) or by cutting paper diaphragms of fixed aperture (one for each objective used). In this instance a lamp iris would be useful.

e Lower the condenser just sufficiently to defocus the ground glass surface and render the field of illumination even.

f Observe the back aperture of the objective and open the substage condenser iris about 75 percent of the way. The final adjustment of the substage iris is made while observing the preparation; the iris should be open as far as possible, still giving good contrast.

g The intensity of illumination should be adjusted only with neutral density filters or by changing the lamp voltage.

Proper illumination is one of the most important operations in microscopy. It is easy to judge a microscopist's ability by a glance at his field of view and the objective back lens.

B Resolving Power

The resolving power of the microscope is its ability to distinguish separate details of closely spaced microscopic structures. The theoretical limit of resolving two discrete points, a distance X apart, is:

$$X = \frac{1.22\lambda}{2\,N.A.}$$

where λ = wavelength of light used to illuminate the specimen
N. A. = numerical aperture of the objective

Substituting a wavelength of 4,500 Angstroms and a numerical aperture of 1.3, about the best that can be done with visible light, we find that two points about 2,000A (or 0.2 micron) apart can be seen as two separate points. Further increase in resolving power can be achieved for the light microscope by using light or shorter wavelength. Ultraviolet light near 2,000 Angstroms lowers the limit to about 0.1 micron, the lower limit for the light microscope.

The numerical aperture of an objective is usually engraved on the objective and is related to the angular aperture, AA (Figure 15), by the formula:

$$N.A. = n \sin \frac{AA}{2}$$

where n = the lowest index in the space between the object and the objective.

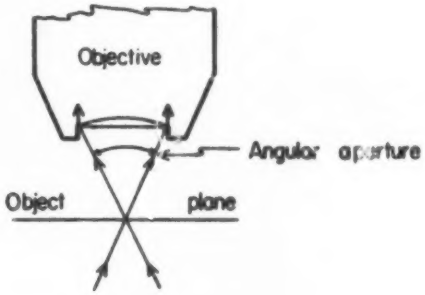


Figure 15

ANGULAR APERTURE OF MICROSCOPE OBJECTIVE

1 Maximum useful magnification

A helpful rule of thumb is that the useful magnification will not exceed 1,000 times the numerical aperture of the objective (see Tables 3 and 4). Although somewhat higher magnification may be used in specific cases, no additional detail will be resolved.

It is curious, considering the figures in the table, that most, if not all, manufacturers of microscopes furnish a 10X eyepiece as the highest power. A 10X eyepiece is useful but anyone interested in critical work should use a 15-25X eyepiece; the 5-10X eyepieces are best for scanning purposes.

2 Abbe's theory of resolution

One of the most cogent theories of resolution is due to Ernst Abbe, who suggested that microscopic objects act like diffraction gratings (Figure 16) and that the angle of diffraction, therefore, increases with the fineness of the detail. He proposed that a given microscope objective would resolve a particular detail if at least two or three transmitted rays (one direct and two diffracted rays) entered the objective. In Figure 16 the detail shown would be resolved in A and C but not in B. This theory, which can be borne out by simple experiment, is useful in showing how to improve resolution. Since shorter wavelengths will give a smaller diffraction angle, there is more chance of resolving fine detail with short wavelengths. Also, since only two of the transmitted rays are needed, oblique light and a high N.A. condenser will aid in resolving fine detail.

3 Improving resolving power

The following list summarizes the practical approaches to higher resolution with the light microscope:

a The specimen should be illuminated by either critical or Köhler illumination.

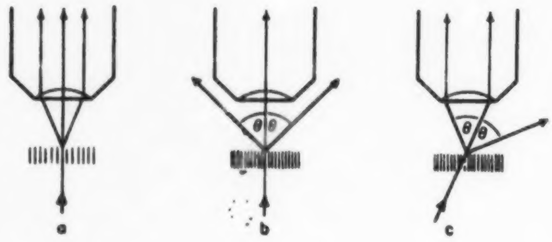


Figure 16

ABBE THEORY OF RESOLUTION

b The condenser should be well-corrected and have a numerical aperture as high as the objective to be used.

c An apochromatic oil-immersion objective should be used with a compensating eyepiece of at least 15X magnification. The immersion oil should have an index close to 1.515 and have proper dispersion for the objective being used.

d Immersion oil should be placed between the condenser and slide and between cover slip and objective. The preparation itself should be surrounded by a liquid having a refractive index of 1.515 or more.

e The illumination should be reasonably monochromatic and as short in wavelength as possible. An interference filter transmitting a wavelength of about 480-500 millimicrons is a suitable answer to this problem. Ideally, of course, ultraviolet light should be used to decrease the wavelength still further.

The practical effect of many of these factors is critically discussed by Loveland(2) in a paper on the optics of object space.

IV PHOTOMICROGRAPHY

A Introduction

Photomicrography, as distinct from microphotography, is the art of taking pictures through the microscope. A microphotograph is a small photograph; a photomicrograph is a photograph of a small object. Photomicrography is a valuable tool in recording the results of microscopical study. It enables the microscopist to:

1 describe a microscopic field objectively without resorting to written descriptions,

2 record a particular field for future reference,

3 make particle size counts and counting analyses easily and without tying up a microscope,

4 enhance or exaggerate the visual microscopic field to bring out or emphasize certain details not readily apparent visually,

5 record images in ultraviolet and infrared microscopy which are otherwise invisible to the unaided eye.

There are two general approaches to photomicrography; one requires only a plate or film holder supported above the eyepiece of the microscope with a light-tight bellows; the other utilizes any ordinary camera with its own lens system, supported with a light-tight adaptor above the eyepiece. It is best, in the latter case, to use a reflex camera so that the image can be carefully focused on the ground glass. Photomicrography of this type can be regarded simply as replacing the eye with the camera lens system. The camera should be focused at infinity, just as the eye is for visual observation, and it should be positioned close to and over the eyepiece.

The requirements for photomicrography, however, are more rigorous than those for visual work. The eye can normally compensate for varying light intensities, curvature of field and depth of field. The photographic plate, however, lies in one plane; hence the greatest care must be used to focus sharply on the subject plane of interest and to select optics to give minimum amounts of field curvature and chromatic aberrations.

With black and white film, color filters may be used to enhance the contrast of some portions of the specimen while minimizing chromatic aberrations of the lenses. In color work, however, filters cannot usually be used for this purpose and better optics may be required.

Photomicrographic cameras which fit directly onto the microscope are available in 35-mm or up to 3-1/4 × 4-1/4 inch sizes. Others are made which accommodate larger film sizes and which have their own support independent of the microscope. The former, however, are preferred for ease of handling and lower cost. The latter system is preferred for greater flexibility and versatility and lack of vibration. The Polaroid camera has many applications in microscopy and can be used on the microscope directly but, because of its weight, only when the microscope has a vertically moving stage for focusing rather than a focusing body tube.

B Determination of Correct Exposure

Correct exposure determination can be accomplished by trial and error, by relating new conditions to previously used successful conditions and by photometry.

With the trial and error method a series of trial exposures is made, noting the type of subject, illumination, filters, objective, eyepiece, magnification, film and shutter speed. The best exposure is selected. The following parameters can be changed and the exposure time adjusted accordingly:

1 Magnification. Exposure time varies as the square of the magnification.

Example: Good exposure was obtained with a 1/10-second exposure and a magnification of 100X. If the magnification is now

200X, the correct exposure is calculated as follows:

new exposure time = old exposure time

$$\times \left(\frac{\text{new magnification}}{\text{old magnification}}\right)^2 = 1/10 \left(\frac{200}{100}\right)^2 =$$

4/10 or, say, 1/2 second.

It should be noted, however, that the above calculation can be made only when there has been no change in the illumination system including the condenser or the objective. Only changes in magnification due to changing eyepieces or bellows extension distance can be handled in the above manner.

2 Numerical aperture. Exposure time varies inversely as the square of the smallest working numerical aperture of the condenser and objective.

Example: Good exposure was obtained at 1/10 second with the 10X objective, N. A. 0. 25, at full aperture. With a 20X objective, N. A. 0. 25, at full aperture and the same final magnification, what is the correct exposure time?

new exposure time = old exposure time

$$\times \left(\frac{\text{old N. A.}}{\text{new N. A.}}\right)^2 = 1/10 \left(\frac{0.25}{0.50}\right)^2 = 1/40 \text{ or,}$$

say, 1/50 second.

It is seen that more light reaches the photographic film with higher numerical apertures at the same magnification.

3 Film. Exposure time varies inversely with the American Standards Association speed index of the film.

Example: A good picture was obtained with Eastman Tri-X film at 1/100 second. What is the correct exposure for Eastman Kodachrome II Type A. The A. S. A. speed for Tri-X is 400 and for Kodachrome II Type A Professional is 40.

new exposure time = old exposure time

$$\times \frac{\text{A. S. A. of old film}}{\text{A. S. A. of new film}} = 1/100(400/40) =$$

10/100 or 1/10 second.

4 Other parameters may be varied but the prediction of exposure time cannot be made readily. Experience and photoelectric devices are the best guides to the proper exposure.

Photoelectric devices are excellent for determining correct exposure. Since ordinary photographic exposure meters are not sensitive enough for photomicrography, more sensitive instruments, having a galvanometer or electronic amplifying circuit, are required. Some photosensitive cells are inserted in the body tube in place of the eyepiece for light intensity readings. This has the advantage of detecting the light level at a point of high intensity but does not take into account the eyepiece, the distance to the film or the film speed.

The cell may be placed just above the eyepiece so that it registers the total amount of light leaving the eyepiece. Again, the effects of film speed and the projection distance are not accounted for. The principal drawback with the total light measuring photometer is the difficulty of taking into account the area of field covered. Take, for example, a bright field in which only a few crystals appear; perhaps 1 percent of the light entering the field of view is scattered by the crystals and the photometer shows close to a maximum reading. Now assume that everything remains constant except the number of crystals and, consequently, the amount of light scattered. The photometer reading could easily drop by 50 percent, yet the proper exposure is unchanged. The situation is similar for photomicrography with crossed polars since the photometer reading depends on the intensity of illumination, on the birefringence and thickness of the crystals and on the number and size of the crystals in the field or, alternatively, on the area of the field covered by birefringent crystals. One of the best solutions to this problem is to measure the photometer reading with no preparation on the stage. A first-order red compensator or a quartz wedge is inserted when crossed polars are being used to illuminate the entire field.

An alternative is to place the cell on the ground glass where the film will be located. However, although all variables except film speed are now taken into account, measurements in the image plane have the disadvantage of requiring a more sensitive electronic photoelectric apparatus.

No matter what method is used for placing the photocell, the exposure time can be determined by the general formula:

$$\text{exposure time} = \frac{k}{\text{meter reading}}.$$

The constant k will depend on the physical arrangement and film used. To determine k for any particular system, first set up the microscope to take a picture. Record the meter reading and take a series of trial exposures. Pick out the best exposure and calculate k. Then the k which was determined holds as long as no change is made in the light path beyond the photocell, e.g. changing to a faster film or changing the projection distance. Thus the objective, condenser position or illuminator may be changed without affecting k if the cell is used as described above.

Example: With one particular arrangement of photocell and film, the meter reading is found to be 40. A series of photographs are taken at 1/2, 1/5, 1/10, 1/25 and 1/50 seconds. The photomicrograph taken at 1/5 second is judged to be the best; hence k is calculated as follows:

k = meter reading × exposure time = 40 × 1/5 = 8.

Assume now that a new picture is to be taken at another magnification (but with the same film and projection distance) and that the new meter reading is 16; therefore:

exposure time = k/meter reading = 8/16 = 1/2 second.

V MICROMETRY

A Particle Size Determination

Linear distances and areas can be measured with the microscope. This permits determination of particle size and quantitative analysis of physical mixtures. The usual unit of length for microscopical measurements is the micron (1×10^{-3}mm or about 4×10^{-5}inch). Measuring particles in electron microscopy requires an even smaller unit, the millimicron (1×10^{-3} micron or 10 Angstrom units). Table 6 shows the approximate average size of a few common airborne materials.

Table 6. APPROXIMATE PARTICLE SIZE OF SEVERAL COMMON PARTICULATES

Ragweed pollen	25 microns
Fog droplets	20 microns
Power plant flyash (after precipitators)	2-5 microns
Tobacco smoke	0.2 micron (200 millimicrons)
Foundry fumes	0.1 - 1 micron (100-1000 millimicrons)

The practical lower limit of accurate particle size measurement with the light microscope is about 0.5 micron. The measurement of a particle smaller than this with the light microscope leads to errors which, under the best circumstances, increase to about ± 100 percent (usually +).

One of the principal uses of high resolving power is in the precise measurement of particle size. There are, however, a variety of approximate and useful procedures as well.

1 Methods of particle size measurement

a Knowing the magnification of the microscope (product of the magnification of objective and eyepiece), the size of particles can be estimated. For example, with a 10X eyepiece and a 16-mm (or 10X) objective, the total magnification is 100X. A particle that appears to be 10-mm at 10 inches from the eye has an actual size of 10 mm divided by 100 or 0.10 mm or 100 microns. This is in no sense an accurate method, but it does permit quick estimation of particle size; the error in this estimation is usually 10-25 percent.

b Another approximate method is also based on the use of known data. If we know approximately the diameter of the microscope field, we can estimate the percentage of the diameter occupied by the object to be measured and calculate from these figures the approximate size of the object. The size of the microscope field depends on both the objective and the ocular although the latter is a minor influence. The size of the field should be determined with a millimeter scale for each objective and ocular. If this is done, estimation of sizes by comparison with the entire field diameter can be quite accurate (5-10%).

c The movement of a graduated mechanical stage can also be used for rough measurement of diameters of large particles. Stages are usually graduated (with vernier) to read to 0.1 millimeter, or 100 microns. In practice, the leading edge of the particle is brought to one of the lines of the cross hair in the eyepiece and a reading is taken of the stage position. Then the particle is moved across the field by moving the mechanical stage in an appropriate direction until the second trailing edge just touches the cross-hair line. A second reading is taken and the difference in the two readings is the distance moved or the size of the particle. This method is especially useful when the particle is larger than the field, or when the optics give a distorted image near the edge of the field.

d The above method can be extended to projection or photography. The image of the particles can be projected on a screen with a suitable light source or they may be photographed. The final magnification, M, on the projection surface (or film plane) is given approximately by

$$M = D \times O.M. \times E.M./25$$

where O.M. = objective magnification
E.M. = eyepiece magnification
D = projection distance from the eyepiece in centimeters.

The image detail can then be measured in centimeters and the actual size computed by dividing by M. This method is usually accurate to within 2-5 percent depending on the size range of the detail measured.

e The stated magnifications and/or focal lengths of the microscope optics are nominal and vary a bit from objective to objective or eyepiece to eyepiece. To obtain accurate measurements, a stage micrometer is used to calibrate each combination of eyepiece and objective. The stage micrometer is a glass microscope slide that has, accurately engraved in the center, a scale, usually 2 millimeters long, divided into 200 parts, each part representing 0.01 millimeter. Thus when this scale is observed, projected or photographed, the exact image magnification can be determined. For example, if 5 spaces of the stage micrometer measure 6 millimeters when projected, the actual magnification is

$$\frac{6}{5\ (0.01)} = 120 \text{ times.}$$

This magnification figure can be used to improve the accuracy of method 4 above.

f The simplest procedure and the most accurate is based on the use of a micrometer eyepiece. Since the eyepiece magnifies a real image from the objective, it is possible to place a transparent scale in the same plane as the image from the objective and thus have a scale superimposed over the image. This is done by first placing an eyepiece micrometer scale disc in the eyepiece. The eyepiece micrometer has an arbitrary scale and must be calibrated with each objective used. The simplest way to do this is to place the stage micrometer on the stage and note a convenient whole number of eyepiece micrometer divisions. The value in microns for each eyepiece micrometer division is then easily computed. When the stage micrometer is removed and replaced by the specimen, the superimposed eyepiece scale can be used for accurate measurement of any feature in the specimen by direct observation, photography or projection.

2 Calibration of eyepiece micrometer

Each micrometer stage scale has divisions 100μ (0.1 mm) apart; one or two of these are usually subdivided into 10μ (0.01-mm) divisions. These form the standard against which the arbitrary divisions in the micrometer eyepiece are to be calibrated. Each objective must be calibrated separately by noting the correspondence between the stage scale and the eyepiece scale. Starting with the lowest power objective focus on the stage scale, arrange the two scales parallel and in good focus. It should be possible to determine the number of eyepiece divisions exactly equal to some whole number of divisions of the stage scale, a distance readily expressed in microns.

The calibration consists, then, of calculating the number of microns per eyepiece scale division. To make the comparison as accurate as possible, a large part of each scale must be used (see Figure 17). Let's assume that with the low power 16-mm objective 6 large divisions of the stage scale (s.m.d.) are equal to 38 divisions of the eyepiece scale. This means that 38 eyepiece micrometer divisions (e.m.d.) are equivalent to 600 microns. Hence:

$$1 \text{ e.m.d.} = 600/38$$
$$= 15.8\mu.$$

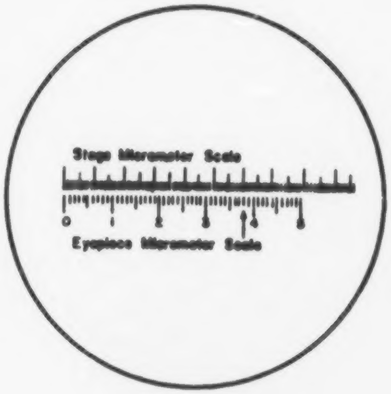


Figure 17

COMPARISON OF STAGE MICROMETER SCALE WITH EYEPIECE MICROMETER SCALE

Thus when that micrometer eyepiece is used with that 16-mm objective each division of the eyepiece scale is equivalent to 15.8μ, and it can be used to make an accurate measurement of any object on the microscope stage. A particle, for example, observed with the 16-mm objective and measuring 8.5 divisions on the eyepiece scale is 8.5 (15.8) or 135μ in diameter.

Each objective on your microscope must be calibrated in this manner.

A convenient way to record the necessary data and to calculate μ/emd is by means of a table.

Table 7

Objective	No. smd = no. emd	μ = no. emd	μ = 1 emd
32-mm	18 = 44	1800 = 44	40.9μ
16-mm	6 = 38	600 = 38	15.8μ
4-mm	1 = 30	100 = 30	3.33μ

3 Determination of particle size distribution

The measurement of particle size can vary in complexity depending on particle shape. The size of a sphere may be denoted by its diameter. The size of a cube may be expressed by the length of an edge or diagonal. Beyond these two configurations, the particle "size" must include information about the shape of the particle in question, and the expression of this shape takes a more complicated form.

Martin's diameter is the simplest means of measuring and expressing the diameters of irregular particles and is sufficiently accurate when averaged for a large number of particles. In this method, the horizontal or east-west dimension of each particle which divides the projected area into halves is taken as Martin's diameter (Figure 18).

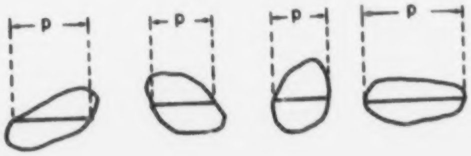


Figure 18

MARTIN'S DIAMETER

The more particles counted, the more accurate will be the average particle size. Platelike and needlelike particles should have a correction factor applied to account for the third dimension since all such particles are restricted in their orientation on the microscope slide. When particle size is reported, the general shape of the particles as well as the method used to determine the "diameter" should be noted.

Particle size distribution is determined routinely by moving a preparation of particles past an eyepiece micrometer scale in such a way that their Martin's diameter can be tallied. All particles whose centers fall within two fixed divisions on the scale are tallied. Movement of the preparation is usually accomplished by means of a mechanical stage but may be carried out by rotation of an off-center rotating stage. A sample tabulation appears in Table 8. The eyepiece and objective are chosen so that at least six, but not more than twelve, size classes are required and sufficient particles are counted to give a smooth curve. The actual number tallied (200 - 2,000) depends on particle shape regularity and the range of sizes. The size tallied for each particle is that number of eyepiece micrometer divisions most closely approximating Martin's diameter for that particle.

4 Calculation of size averages

The size data may be treated in a variety of ways; one simple, straightforward treatment is shown in Table 9. For a more complete discussion of the treatment of particle size data see Chamot and Mason's Handbook of Chemical Microscopy(3), page 26.

The averages with respect to number, $\bar{d}_1$; surface, $\bar{d}_3$; and weight or volume, $\bar{d}_4$, are calculated as follows for the data in Table 9.

Table 8. PARTICLE SIZE TALLY FOR A SAMPLE OF STARCH GRAINS

Size class (emd*)	Number of particles	Total
1	卌 卌 卌 1	16
2	卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 1 1 1	98
3	卌 卌	110
4	卌 1 1	107
5	卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 1	71
6	卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌 卌	45
7	卌 卌 卌 卌 1	21
8	1 1	2
		470

*emd = eyepiece micrometer divisions

$\bar{d}_1 = \Sigma nd/\Sigma n = 1758/470$

$= 3.74 \text{ emd} \times 2.82^* = 10.5\mu$

$\bar{d}_3 = \Sigma nd^3/\Sigma nd^2 = 37440/7662$

$= 4.89 \text{ emd} \times 2.82 = 13.8\mu$

$\bar{d}_4 = \Sigma nd^4/\Sigma nd^3 = 199194/37440$

$= 5.32 \text{ emd} \times 2.82 = 15.0\mu$

*2.82 microns per emd (determined by calibration of the eyepiece-objective combination used for the determination).

Cumulative percents by number, surface and weight (or volume) may be plotted from the data in Table 9. The calculated percentages, e.g.

$$\sum_{d=1}^{d} nd^4 \Big/ \sum_{d=1}^{d=15} nd^4 \times 100$$

for the cumulative weight or volume curve, are plotted against d. Finally, the specific surface, S_m, in square meters per gram, m, may be calculated if the density, D, is known; the surface average $\bar{d}_3$, is used.

If D = 1.1, $S_m = 6/\bar{d}_3D = 6/13.8(1.1)$

$= 0.395 m^2/g.$

Table 9. CALCULATIONS FOR PARTICLE SIZE AVERAGE

d (Aver. diam. in emd)	n	nd	nd^2	nd^3	nd^4
1	16	16	16	16	16
2	98	196	392	784	1568
3	110	330	990	2970	8910
4	107	428	1712	6848	27392
5	71	355	1775	8875	44375
6	45	270	1620	9720	58320
7	21	147	1029	7203	50421
8	2	16	128	1024	8192
	470	1758	7662	37440	199194

B Counting Analysis

Mixtures of particulates can often be quantitatively analyzed by counting the total number of particulates from each component in a representative sample. The calculations are, however, complicated by three factors: average particle size, particle shape and the density of the components. If all of the components were equivalent in particle size, shape and density then the weight percentage would be identical to the number percentage. Usually, however, it is necessary to determine correction factors to account for the differences.

When properly applied, this method can be accurate to within ± 1 percent and, in special cases, even better. It is often applied to the analysis of fiber mixtures and is then usually called a dot-count because the tally of fibers is kept as the preparation is moved past a point or dot in the eyepiece.

A variety of methods can be used to simplify recognition of the different components. These include chemical stains or dyes and enhancement of optical differences such as refractive indices, dispersion or color. Often, however, one relies on the differences in morphology, *e.g.* counting the percent of rayon fibers in a sample of "silk".

Example 1: A dot-count of a mixture of fiberglass and nylon shows:

nylon	262
fiberglass	168

Therefore:

$$\% \text{ nylon} = 262/(262 + 168) \times 100$$
$$= 60.9\% \text{ by number.}$$

However, although both fibers are smooth cylinders, they do have different densities and usually different diameters. To correct for diameter one must measure the average diameter of each type of fiber and calculate the volume of a unit length of each.

	aver. diam. μ	volume of 1-μ slice, μ^3
nylon	18.5	268
fiberglass	13.2	117

The percent by volume is, then:

$$\% \text{ nylon} = \frac{262 \times 268}{(262 \times 268) + (168 \times 117)} \times 100$$
$$= 78.1\% \text{ by volume.}$$

Still we must take into account the density of each in order to calculate the weight percent.

If the densities are 1.6 for nylon and 2.2 for glass then the percent by weight is:

$$\% \text{ nylon} = \frac{262 \times 268 \times 1.6}{(262 \times 268 \times 1.6)+(168 \times 117 \times 2.2)} \times 100$$

$$= 72\% \text{ by weight.}$$

Example 2: A count of quartz and gypsum shows:

quartz	283
gypsum	467

To calculate the percent by weight we must take into account the average particle size, the shape and the density of each.

The average particle size with respect to weight, $\bar{d}_4$, must be measured for each and the shape factor must be determined. Since gypsum is more platelike than quartz each particle of gypsum is thinner. The shape factor can be approximated or can be roughly calculated by measuring the actual thickness of a number of particles. We might find, for example, that gypsum particles average 80% of the volume of the average quartz particle; this is our shape factor. The final equation for the weight percent is:

$$\% \text{ quartz} = \frac{283 \times \pi\bar{d}_4/6 \times Dq}{238 \times \pi\bar{d}_4/6 \times Dq + 467 \times \pi\,\bar{d}_4^*/6 \times 0.80 \times Dg} \times 100$$

where Dq and Dg are the densities of quartz and gypsum respectively; 0.80 is the shape factor and $\bar{d}_4$ and $\bar{d}_4^*$ are the average particle sizes with respect to weight for quartz and gypsum respectively.

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STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION OF CELLS

I INTRODUCTION

What are cells? Cells may be defined as the basic structural units of life. The cell has many different parts which carry on the various functions of cell life. These are called organelles ("little organs").

A The branch of biology which deals with the form and structure of plants and animals is called "Morphology." The study of the arrangement of their several parts is called "anatomy", and the study of cells is called "cytology".

B There is no "typical" cell, for cells differ from each other in detail, and these differences are in part responsible for the variety of life that exists on the earth.

II FUNDAMENTALS OF CELL STRUCTURE

A How do we recognize a structure as a cell? We must look for certain characteristics and/or structures which have been found to occur in cells. The cell is composed of a variety of substances and structures, some of which result from cellular activities. These include both living and non-living materials.

1 Non-living components include:

a A "cell wall" composed of cellulose may be found as the outermost covering of many plant cells.

b "Vacuoles" are chambers in the protoplasm which contain fluids of different densities (i.e., different from the surrounding protoplasm).

2 The "living" parts of the cell are called "protoplasm." The following structures are included:

a A thin "cell membrane" is located just inside the cell wall. This membrane may be thought of as the outermost layer of protoplasm.

b In plant cells the most conspicuous protoplasmic structures are the "chloroplasts", which contain highly organized membrane systems bearing the photosynthetic pigments (chlorophylls, carotenoids, and xanthophylls) and enzymes.

c The "nucleus" is a spherical body which regulates cell function by controlling enzyme synthesis.

d "Granules" are structures of small size and may be "living" or non-living" material.

e "Flagella" are whip-like structures found in both plant and animal cells. The flagella are used for locomotion, or to circulate the surrounding medium.

f "Cilia" resemble short flagella, found almost exclusively on animal cells. In the lower animals, cilia are used for locomotion and food gathering.

g The "pseudopod", or false foot, is an extension of the protoplasm of certain protozoa, in which the colloidal state of the protoplasm alternates from a "sol" to a "jel" condition from time to time to facilitate cell movement.

h "Ribosomes" are protoplasmic bodies which are the site of protein synthesis. They are too small (150 Å in diameter) to be seen with a light microscope.

i "Mitochondria" are small membranous structures containing enzymes that oxidize food to produce energy transfer compounds (ATP).

B How basic structure is expressed in some major types of organisms.

We can better visualize the variety of cell structure by considering several specific cells.

1 Bacteria have few organelles, and are so minute that under the light microscope only general morphological types (i.e., the three basic shapes; rods, spheres, and spirals) can be recognized. The following structures have been defined:

a The "capsule" is a thick protective covering of the cell exterior, consisting of polysaccharide or polypeptide.

b The cell wall and plasma membrane are present.

c Although no well defined nucleus is visible in bacterial cells, the electron microscope has revealed areas of deoxyribose nucleic acid (DNA) concentration. This substance is present within the nucleus of of higher cells, and is the genetic or hereditary material.

d Some types of bacteria contain a special type of chlorophyll (bacteriochlorophyll) and carry on photosynthesis.

2 The blue-green algae are similar to the bacteria in structure, but contain the photosynthetic pigment chlorophyll a.

a Like the bacteria, these forms also lack an organized nucleus (the nuclear region is not bounded by a membrane).

b The chlorophyll-bearing membranes are not localized in distinct bodies (chloroplasts), but are dispersed throughout the cell.

c Gas-filled structures called "pseudovacuoles" are found in some types of blue-greens.

3 The green algae as a group include a great variety of structural types, ranging from single-celled non-motile forms to large motile colonies. Some types are large enough to resemble higher aquatic plants.

a The chloroplasts are modified into a variety of shapes and are located in different positions. Examples of chloroplast shape and position are:

1) Parietal - located on the periphery of the cell; usually cup-shaped and may extend completely around the inner surface of the plasma membrane.

2) Discoid - also located on the periphery of the cell, but are plate-shaped; usually many per cell.

3) Axial - lying in the central axis of the cell; may be ribbon-like or star-shaped.

4) Radial - have arms or processes that extend outward from the center of the cell (radiate), reaching the plasma membrane.

5) Reticulate - a mesh-like network that extends throughout volume of the cell.

b Located in the chloroplasts may be dense, proteinaceous, starch-forming bodies called "pyrenoids".

4 The flagellated algae possess one-to-eight flagella per cell. The chloroplasts may contain brown and/or red pigments in addition to chlorophyll.

a Reserve food may be stored as starch (Chiamydomonas) paramylon (Euglena), or as oil.

5 The protozoa are single-celled animals which exhibit a variety of cell structure.

a The amoebae move by means of pseudopodia, as described previously.

b The flagellated protozoa (Mastigophora) possess one or more flagella.

c The ciliates are the most highly modified protozoans. The cilia may be more or less evenly distributed over the entire surface of the cell, or may be localized.

III FUNCTIONS OF CELLS

What are the functions of cells and their structural components? Cellular function is called "life", and life is difficult to define. Life is characterized by processes commonly referred to as reproduction, growth, photosynthesis, etc.

A Microorganisms living in surface waters are subjected to constant fluctuations in the physical and chemical characteristic of the environment, and must constantly modify their activities.

1 The cell requires a source of chemical energy to carry on life processes and successfully compete with other organisms. Plant cells may obtain this energy from light, which is absorbed by chlorophyll and converted into ATP or food reserves, or from the oxidation of food stuffs. Animal cells obtain energy only from the oxidation of food.

2 Cells must obtain raw materials from the environment in order to grow and carry out other life functions. Inorganic and organic materials may be taken up by passive diffusion or by "active transport". In the later process, energy is used to build up and maintain a higher concentration of a substance (such as phosphate) inside the cell than is found outside. Algae are able to synthesis organic matter from inorganic raw materials (carbon dioxide and water), with the aid of energy derived from light, whereas animal cells must obtain their organic matter "ready-made" by consuming other organisms, organic debris, or dissolved organics.

IV SUMMARY

The cell is made up of many highly specialized substructures. The types of substructures present, and their appearance (shape, color, etc,) are very important in understanding the role of the organism in the aquatic community, and in classification.

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Descriptor: Cytological Studies

TYPES OF ALGAE

I INTRODUCTION

A Algae in general may be defined as small pigmented plant-like organisms of relatively simple structure. Actually the size range is extreme: from only a few microns to over three hundred feet in length. Commonly observed examples include the greenish pond scum or frog spittle of freshwater ponds, much of the golden brown slime covering rocks in a trout stream, and the great marine kelps and seaweeds. Large freshwater forms as *Nitella* and *Chara* or stonewort are also included.

B Algae approach ubiquity in distribution. In addition to the commonly observed bodies of water, certain algae also live in such unlikely places as thermal springs, the surface of melting snow, on the hair of the three toed sloth in Central America, and in conjunction with certain fungi to form lichens.

III ALGAE WILL BE GROUPED FOR THE SAKE OF CONVENIENCE INTO FOUR GENERAL TYPES:

A *Blue-greens* (See plate: Blue-Green Algae, Cyanophyceae). This is a valid technical group. The size range is not very great, some being so small as to approach the size range of the bacteria.

1 These are the only algae in which the pigments are not localized in definite bodies but dissolved throughout the cell. Blue, red, or other pigments are present in addition to chlorophyll thus giving the cells a bluish green, yellow, or red color, at least enmasse.

2 The nucleus lacks a nuclear membrane.

3 Tend to achieve nuisance concentrations more frequently in the warm summer months and in the richer waters.

4 Vegetative reproduction, in addition to cell division, includes the formation of "hormogones," or short specifically delimited sections of trichomes (filaments).

5 Spores of three types are encountered:

a Akinetes are usually larger, thick walled resting spores.

b Heterocysts appear like empty cell walls, but are actually filled with protoplasm, have occasionally been observed to germinate.

c Endospores, also called "gonidia" or conidia, are formed by repeated division of the protoplast within a given cell wall. Present in only a few genera.

6 Some common examples of blue-green algae are:

Anacystis (*Microcystis* or *Polycystis*), *Anabaena*, *Aphanizomenon*, and *Oscillatoria*

B The *Pigmented flagellates* (in contrast to the non-pigmented or animal-like flagellates) are a heterogeneous collection of motile forms from several different algal groups (See plate: Flagellated algae).

1 There may be one, two, four, or more flagella per cell.

2 There is a well organized nucleus.

3 A light-sensitive red eyespot usually present.

4 The chlorophyll is contained in one or more distinctive bodies called plastids.

5 Two or more cells may be associated in a colony.

6 Non-motile life history stages may be encountered.

7 Masses of stored starch called pyrenoid bodies are often conspicuous.

8 Some examples of pigmented flagellates are: Euglena, Phacus, Chlamydomonas, Gonium, Volvox, Peridinium, Ceratium Mallomonas, Synura and Dinobryon.

C The Non-motile green algae constitute another heterogeneous assembly of unrelated forms (See plate: Non-Motile Green Algae)

1 Like the flagellates they have well organized nuclei and chloroplasts. The shape of the chloroplast is often distinctive.

2 They lack flagella or any other locomotor device.

3 There is extreme structural variation among the group.

4 Some types tend to occur as a general planktonic mass or bloom," often in combinations of two or more species.

Some examples are: Sphaerocystis, Pediastrum, Scenedesmus, and the desmid Cosmarium.

5 Threadlike (filamentous) green algae may form masses or blankets, cutting off light, and reducing water circulation. They also add considerably to the total mass of organic matter. Some examples of this type are: Spirogyra, Hydrodictyon, Cladophora, Oedogonium, and Chara.

D The Diatoms constitute another valid technical group (See plate: Diatoms-Bacillariophyceae).

1 In appearance, they are geometrically regular in shape. The presence of a brownish pigment in addition to the chlorophyll gives them a golden to greenish color.

2 Motile forms have a distinctive hesitating progression.

3 The most distinctive structural feature is the two-part shell (frustule) composed of silicon dioxide (glass).

a One part fits inside the other as the two halves of a pill box, or a petri dish.

b The surface of these shells are sculptured with minute pits and lines arranged with geometrical perfection.

c The view from the side is called the "girdle view," that from above or below, the "valve view."

4 There are two general shapes of diatoms, circular (centric) and elongate (pennate). The elongate forms may be motile, the circular ones are not.

5 Diatoms may associate in colonies in various ways.

6 Examples of diatoms frequently encountered are: Stephanodiscus Cyclotella, Asterionella, Fragilaria, Tabellaria, Synedra, and Nitzschia.

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Descriptor: Algae

KEY FOR IDENTIFICATION OF GROUPS OF FRESHWATER ALGAE

Beginning with "1a" and "1b", choose one of the two contrasting statements and follow this procedure with the "a" and "b" statements of the number given at the end of the chosen statement. Continue until the name of the algal group is given instead of another key number.

1a. Plastid (separate color body) absent; complete protoplast pigmented; generally blue-green; iodine starch test* negative ------------------------------ Blue-green algae

1b. Plastid or plastids present; parts of protoplast free of some or all pigments; generally green, brown, red, etc., but not blue-green; iodine starch test* positive or negative-------- 2

2a. Cell wall permanently rigid (never showing evidence of collapse), and with regular pattern of fine markings (striations, etc.); plastids brown to green; iodine starch test* negative; flagella absent; wall of two essentially similar halves, one placed over the other as a cover-----------------Diatoms

2b. Cell wall, if present, capable of sagging, wrinkling, bulging or rigidity, depending on existing turgor pressure of cell protoplast; regular pattern of fine markings on wall generally absent; plastids green, red, brown, etc.; iodine starch test* positive or negative; flagella present or absent; cell wall continuous and generally not of two parts----------------- 3

3a. Cell or colony motile; flagella present (often not readily visible); anterior and posterior ends of cell different from one another in contents and often in shape-------------------Flagellate algae

3b. Non-motile; true flagella absent; ends of cells often not differentiated-------------------Green algae and associated forms

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*Add one drop Lugol's (iodine) solution, diluted 1-1 with distilled water. In about 1 minute, if positive, starch is stained blue and, later black. Other structures (such as nucleus, plastids, cell wall) may also stain, but turn brown to yellow.

CMP

COMPARISON OF FOUR MAJOR GROUPS OF ALGAE

	Blue-Green	Pigmented flagellates	Greens	Diatoms
Color	Blue-Green (Brown)	Green Brown	Green	Brown (Light-Green)
Location of pigment	Throughout cell	In plastids	In plastids	In plastids
Starch	Absent	Present or Absent	Present	Absent
Slimy coating	Present	Absent in most	Absent in most	Absent in most
Nucleus	Absent	Present	Present	Present
Flagellum	Absent	Present	Absent	Absent
Cell Wall	Inseparable from slimy coating	Thin or Absent	Semi-rigid smooth or with spines	Very rigid, with regular markings
"Eye" spot	Absent	Present	Absent	Absent

BLUE-GREEN ALGAE

I WHAT ARE THE BLUE-GREEN ALGAE?

The blue-green algae (Myxophyceae) comprise that large group of microscopic organisms living in aquatic or moist habitats, carrying on photosynthesis and having differentiation of cells which is a little more complex than bacteria, and simpler than all of the other plants called algae.

II WHY ARE THEY CALLED BLUE-GREEN:

In addition to the green photosynthetic pigment (chlorophyll-a) they always have a blue pigment (phyocyanin-c) which tends to give the cushions or mats they may form a blue-green tinge.

III WHERE ARE THE BLUE-GREENS FOUND?

Some are free floating (pelagic and planktonic), others grow from submerged or moist soil, rocks, wood and other objects in both freshwater and marine habitats.

IV WHAT ARE SOME OF THEIR GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS?

Some are gelatinous masses of various shapes floating in water. Others, microscopic in size, grow in great numbers so as to color the water in which they live. Structurally their cells are similar to bacteria. Their protoplasts may be sheathed or imbedded in gelatin, making them slimy. Cells of blue-green algae are without organized nuclei, central vacuoles, or cilia and flagella. No sexual reproduction is known. Asexual reproduction may be effected by fragmentation, in which case special separation devices are formed (dead cells, and heterocysts). Some species are preserved over unfavorable periods by special spores (akinetes and endospores).

V OF WHAT IMPORTANCE ARE BLUE-GREEN ALGAE?

They have both positive and negative economic significance. Because they can convert radient energy into chemical energy, they are producers forming a first link at the base of the food chain. Because many very intricate nutritional relationships exist among the myraids of organisms it is difficult to know the value of the blue-greens. However, people who know what the blue-greens can do to drinking and recreational water classify them as of negative economic importance, because they are often nuisances when they impart color, bad odors, and fishy tastes, or toxins. Some of them can foul pipes and clog filters.

VI WHEN ARE THEY MOST COMMON?

They are widely distributed in time and space, but tend to reach nuisance concentrations more frequently in the late summer and in eutrophic waters.

VII WHAT DO BLUE-GREEN ALGAE DO FOR A LIVING?

The pioneer-forms are of great ecological importance because they live in habitats frequented by few other forms of live, synthesizing organic substances and building substrata that can support other kinds of life.

A Some blue-greens live in association with other organisms as symbionts. Still others are found in polluted waters, because they are able to exist in habitats poor in oxygen. The growth of these kinds of algae under such conditions tends to make a polluted condition worse.

B On the other hand some species should be promoted because they provide oxygen and food through photosynthesis. The first evident product of photosynthesis is glycogen, and is the cause of the brown coloration with the iodine test. Some of the glycogen is used to produce glycoproteins. The gelatinous sheath is composed of pectic substances, cellulose and related compounds.

C When blue-greens mat at the surface of the water the increased lighting may be too strong, resulting in a kill. At this time they may turn from a blue-green to a yellow-green color. Here they decompose in mass. The resulting intermediate products of decomposition may be highly undesirable, because of bad looks, four odors, bad tastes and toxins. Under these conditions the BOD may produce conditions not unlike raw sewage.

VIII WHAT DO BLUE-GREEN ALGAE LOOK LIKE UNDER THE MICROSCOPE?

A A cross section of a typical cell would show an outside nonliving gelatinous layer surrounding a woody cell wall, which is bulging from turgor pressure from the cell (plasma) membrane, pushing the wall outwardly. The protoplasm, contained within the plasma membrane, is divided into two regions. The peripheral pigmented portion called chromatoplasm, and an inner centroplasm, the centroplasm contains chromatins, which is also known as in incipient nucleus or central body, containing chromosomes and genes. Structures (chromatophores or plastids) containing pigments have not been found in the blue-greens. The photosynthetic pigments are dissolved in the peripheral cytoplasm, which is known as the chromatoplasm.

B A simple way to understand the cross section would be to compare it with a doughnut, with the hole representing the colorless central body or incipient nucleus, which houses the chromatoplasm, having the characteristic blue-green color from its dissolved photosynthetic pigments.

IX WHAT CAUSES THESE FOUL-TO-SMELL UNSIGHTLY BLOOMS?

When the protoplasts become sick or old they may develop a great number of "pseudovacuoles" filled with gas. These gas bubbles make the algae buoyant in such a way that they may "flower" or bloom by rising to the surface (planktonic, healthy blue-greens normally possess pseudovacuoles, which are here excepted). Soon they begin to stink because of the odors produced from putrefaction. The lack of dissolved oxygen during this period may affect other organisms.

X ARE ALL BLOOMS PUTREFACTIVE?

No. Healthy blooms are produced by myraids of cells living near the surface of the water at times when environmental conditions are especially favorable for them. Putrefactive blooms are usually from masses of algae undergoing degradation.

XI WHAT ARE SOME OF THE MAJOR KINDS OF BLUE-GREENS?

Most species of blue-greens may be placed into two major groups: the nonfilamentous (coccoid) forms, and the filamentous forms. See the set of drawings following this treatment to get a graphic concept of the two groups.

XII WHAT ARE SOME OF THE MORE DISTINCTIVE FEATURES OF BLUE-GREENS?

A In comparing the blue-greens with other algae it is easier to tell what they do not possess than what they do. They do not have chromatophores or plastids, cilia, flagella, organized nuclei, gametes, central vacuoles, chlorophyll-b, or true starch.

B Many of the filamentous forms, especially the Oscillatoriaceae, exhibit an unexplained movement. When the filamentous forms are surrounded by a gelatinous sheath the row of cells inside is called a trichome, and the trichome with its enclosing sheath is called a filament. There may be more than one trichome within a sheath.

True branching occurs when a cell of the series divides lengthwise and the outer-formed cell adds cells to form a true branch. However, two or more trichomes within a single sheath may be so arranged that though they appear to be branches, their cells actually have all divided in the same plane, and the trichomes have pushed out from growth to form false branching, as in Tolypothrix.

C An occasional reticulated or bubbly appearance is referred to as pseudovacuolation, and en mass imparts a pale, yellowish color to the algae. Under low powers these vacuoles appear dark, under higher magnifications they are reddish.

D Vegetative reproduction in addition to cell division for the unicellular forms, is by special kinds of fragmentation. This includes the formation of hormogones, which are specifically delimited sections of trichomes, and are characteristic of some taxonomic entities.

E Spores of three types are encountered.

1 Akinetes are usually larger, non-motile, thick-walled resting spores.

2 Heterocysts appear like empty cell walls, but are filled with colorless protoplasm and have been occasionally observed to germinate.

3 Endospores, also called gonidia, are formed by a repeated division of the protoplast within a cell wall container.

XIII WHAT ARE SOME EXAMPLES OF BLUE-GREEN ALGAE?

A Anacystis (Microcystis) is common in hard waters.

1 Colonies are always free floating.

2 Their shapes may be roughly spherical or irregular, microscopic or macroscopic.

3 The gelatinous matrix may be extremely transparent, easily broken up on preservation.

4 They frequently contain pseudovacuoles.

B Anabaena is an example of a filamentous form.

1 Filaments may occur singly or in irregular colonies, and free floating or in a delicate nucous matrix.

2 Trichomes have practically the same diameter throughout; may be straight, spiral, or irregularly contorted.

3 Cells are usually spherical, or barrel shaped, rarely cylindrical and never discoid.

4 Heterocysts are usually the same shape but are slightly larger than the vegetative cells.

5 Akinetes are always larger than the vegetative cells, roughly cylindrical, and with rounded ends.

6 It may be readily distinguished from Nostoc by the lack of a firm gelatinous envelope.

7 It may produce an undesirable grassy, moldy or other odor.

C Aphanizomenon is a strictly planktonic filamentous form.

1 Trichomes are relatively straight, and laterally joined into loose macroscopic free-floating flake-like colonies.

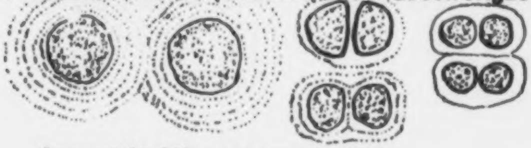
2 Cells are cylindrical or barrel shaped, longer than broad.

3 Heterocysts occur within the filament (i.e., not terminal).

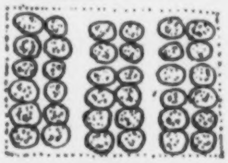
4 Akinetes are cylindrical and relatively long.

SOME BLUE-GREEN ALGAE

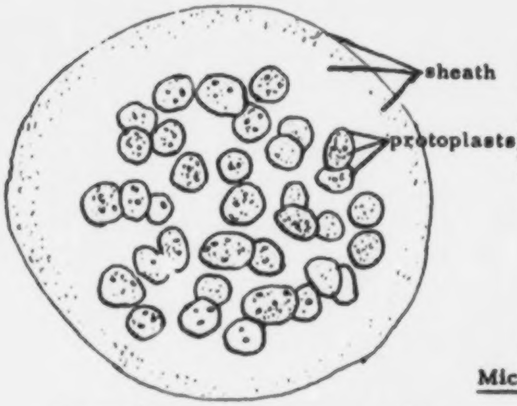
I. Nonfilamentous (coccoid) Blue-Green Algae:



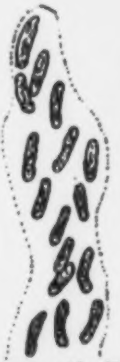
Anacystis (Chroococcus) X600.



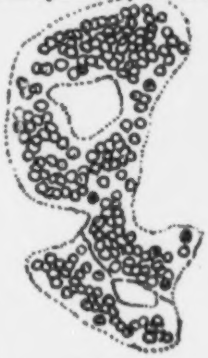
Agmenellum (Merismopedium) X600.


sheath
protoplasts

Coccochloris (Gloeocapsa) X600.

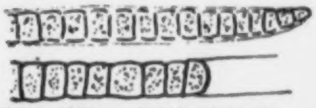


Microcystis (X600).

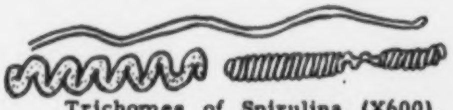


Polycystis (X825)

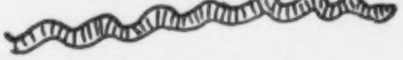
II. Filamentous blue-green algae:



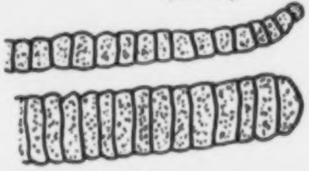
Phormidium (with sheath) (X825).



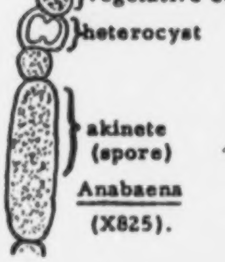
Trichomes of Spirulina. (X600).



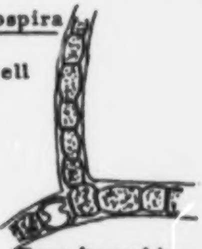
Trichomes of Arthrospira (X600).



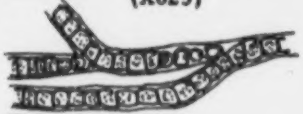
Oscillatoria (without sheath) (X825)


vegetative cell
heterocyst
akinete (spore)

Anabaena (X825).



True branching Hapalosiphon (X375)



False branching Tolypothrix (X375)

Prepared by Louis G. Williams
Aquatic Biologist, Basic Data, SEC.

5 Often imparts grassy or nasturtium-like odors to water.

D Oscillatoria is a large and ubiquitous genus.

1 Filaments may occur singly or interwoven to form mats of indefinite extent.

2 Trichomes are unbranched, cylindrical, and practically without sheaths.

3 Species with narrow trichomes have long cylindrical cells while those with broader trichomes have short broad cells.

4 No heterocysts or akinetes are known in Oscillatoria. It reproduces by fragmentation from hormongonia only.

5 Live species exhibit "oscillatoria" movements, which are oscillating.

6 Species of Oscillatoria may be readily distinguished from Lyngbya by the absence of a sheath.

E Nodularia is an occasional producer of blooms.

1 Vegetative cells, heterocysts, and even the akinetes are broader than long.

2 Trichomes are practically the same diameter throughout.

3 Sheaths are usually distinct, fairly firm, and with a single trichome.

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1 Bartsch, A. F. (ed.) Environmental Requirements of Blue-Green Algae. FWPCA. Pacific Northwest Water Laboratory, Corvallis, Oregon. 111 pp. 1967.

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3 Drouet, Francis. Mxyophyceae. Chapter 5 in Edmondson. Freshwater Biology. p. 95-114. Wiley. 1959.

4 Drouet, Francis. Revision of the Classification of the Oscillariaceae. Monograph 15. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phil. 370 pp. 1968.

5 Jackson, Daniel F. (ed.) Algae, Man, and the Environment. Univ. Syracuse Press. 554 pp. 1968.

This outline was prepared by L. G. Williams, Formerly Aquatic Biologist, Aquatic Biology Activities, Research and Development, Cincinnati Water Research Laboratory, FWPCA.

Descriptor: Cyanophyta

GREEN AND OTHER PIGMENTED FLAGELLATES

I INTRODUCTION

A A flagellate is a free swimming cell (or colony) with one or more flagella.

B Motile flagellated cells occur in most (not all) great groups of plants and animals.

C Out main concern will be with "mature" flagellated algae.

II THE STRUCTURE OF A PIGMENTED OR PLANT-LIKE FLAGELLATE

A There is a well organized nucleus.

B The flagellum is a long whip-like process which acts as a propeller.

   1 It has a distinctive structure.

   2 There may be one or several per cell.

C The chlorophyll is contained in one or more chloroplasts.

D Two or more cells may be associated in a colony.

E Non-Motile Life history stages may be encountered.

F Size is of little use in identification.

G Pyrenoid bodies are often conspicuous.

III The Euglenophyta or *Euglena*-like algae (Figures 1-4) are almost exclusively single celled free swimming flagellates. Nutrition may be holophytic, holozoic, or saprophytic, even within the same species. Referred to by zoologists as mastigophora; many animal like forms are parasitic or commensalistic. Food reserves of plant-like forms are as paramylin (an insoluble carbohydrate) and fats (do not respond to starch test). Thick walled resting stages (cysts) are common. "Metabolic movement" characteristics of some genera (*Euglena*).

Eyespot usually present in anterior end, rarely more than one flagellum.

A *Euglena* is a large genus with pronounced metabolic movement (Figure 1).

   1 Cells spindle shaped

   2 Single flagellum

   3 Eyespot usually present

   4 Chloroplasts numerous, discoid to band shaped

   5 *E. sanguinea* has red pigment.

   6 *E. viridis* generally favors water rich in organic matter.

   7 *E. gracilis* is less tolerant of pollution.

B *Phacus* cells maintain a rigid shape (Figure 2).

   1 Often flattened and twisted, with pointed tip or tail end.

   2 Cell wall (periplast) often marked with fine ridges.

   3 *P. pyrum* favored by polluted water.

   4 *P. pleuronectes* relatively intolerant of pollution.

C *Trachelomonas* cells surrounded by a distinct shell (lorica) with flagellum sticking through hole or collar (Figure 4).

   1 Surface may be smooth or rough

   2 Usually brown in color

   3 Some species such as *T. cerebea* known to clog filters

D Lepocinclis has rigid naked cells with longitudinal or spiral ridges (Figure 3).

1 Cells uncompressed, elipsoidal to oval (in contrast to phacus)

2 Only two species with pointed tails

3 L. texta often associated with waters of high organic content

IV The Chlorophyta or grass green algae (Figures 5-9) are the largest and most varied group. Non-flagellated forms predominate but many conspicuous flagellates are included. Food reserves are usually stored as starch which is readily identified with iodine. Usually two flagella of equal length are present. More planktonic forms are included than in any other group, predominating in the late spring and early autumn.

The cell is typically surrounded by a definite wall and usually has a definite shape. Cell pigments closely resemble those of higher plants, but some have accessory pigments and a few forms have little or none. The chloroplasts always have a shape characteristic of the genus.

The flagellated chlorophyta are contained in the Order Volvocales, the Volcocine algae. All are actively motile during vegetative phases. May be unicellular or colonial. All have an eyespot near the base of the flagella. Colonies may range from a simple plate (Gonium sociale) to a complete hollow sphere (Volvox spp).

A Chlamydomonas is a solitary free swimming genus (Figure 5).

1 Species range from cylindrical to pearshaped.

2 Some species have a gelatinous sheath.

3 There are two flagella inserted close together.

4 Generally favored by polluted waters.

B Carteria resembles Chlamydomonas very closely except that it has four flagella instead of two. Generally favored by polluted water (Figure 7).

C Phacotus usually has free swimming biflagellate cells surrounded by biconcave envelopes resembling two clam shells. These are usually sculptured, dark colored, and impregnated with calcium carbonate.

1 The eyespot ranges from anterior to posterior.

2 Several daughter cells may be retained within the old envelopes of the parent cell.

3 A clean water indicator.

D Chlorogonium is a distinctive genus in which the cell is fusiform, the tail end pointed, and the anterior end slightly blunt (Figure 6).

1 The two flagella only about half as long as the cell.

2 The cell wall is rather delicate.

3 An eyespot usually present near the anterior end.

4 Favored by pollution.

E Gonium colonies typically have 4 to 32 cells arranged in a plate (Figure 8).

1 The cells are imbedded in a gelatinous matrix.

2 Sixteen celled colonies move through the water with a somersault-like motion.

3 Four and eight celled colonies swim flagella end first.

4 Gonium pectorale is typically a plankton form.

F Pandorina colonies range up to 32 cells, usually roughly spherical (Figure 9).

1 Cells arranged in a hollow sphere within a gelatinous matrix.

2 Often encountered especially in hard-water lakes, but seldom abundant.

3 *P. morum* may cause a faintly fishy odor.

G *Eudorina* has up to 64 cells in roughly spherical colonies.

1 The cells may be deeply imbedded in a gelatinous matrix.

2 Common in the plankton of soft water lakes.

3 *E. elegans* is widely distributed.

4 May cause faintly fishy odor.

H *Pleodorina* has up to 128 cells located near the surface of the gelatinous matrix. It is widespread in the United States.

I *Volvox* rarely has less than 500 cells per colony.

1 Central portion of the mature colony may contain only water.

2 Daughter colonies form inside the parent colony.

3 *V. aureus* imparts a fishy odor to the water when present in abundance.

J *Chlamydobotrys* has "mulberry shaped" colonies, with biflagellate cells alternately arranged in tiers of four each. (*Spondylomorum* has quadriflagellate cells).

1 There is no enveloping sheath.

2 *C. stellata* is favored by pollution.

V The Pyrrhophyta includes principally the armored or dinoflagellates (Dinophyceae) (Figures 14-16). This group is almost exclusively flagellated and is characterized by chromatophores which are yellow-brown in color. Food reserves are stored as starch or oil. Naked, holozoic, and saprozoic representatives are found. Both "unarmored", and "armored" forms with chromatophores are found to ingest solid food readily, and holozoic nutrition may be as important as holophytic.

The great majority have walls of cellulose consisting of a definite number of articulated plates which may be very elaborate in structure. There is always a groove girdling the cell in which one flagellum operates, the other extends backward from the point of origin.

Most of the dino-flagellates are marine and some are parasitic. There are six fresh water genera of importance in this country.

A *Gymnodinum* species are generally naked except for a few freshwater species.

G. brevis (marine) is a toxic form considered to be responsible for the "red tide" episodes in Florida and elsewhere.

B Species of *Gonyaulax* (*catanella* and *tamarensis*) are responsible for the paralytic shellfish poisoning.

C *Ceratium* is distinctive in that the anterior and posterior ends are continued as long horns (Figure 16).

1 Seasonal temperature changes have a pronounced effect on the shape of the cells of this species.

2 *C. hirudinella* in high concentration is reported to produce a "vile stench".

D Peridinium is a circular, oval, or angular form, depending on the view (Figure 15).

1 Cell wall is thick and heavy.

2 Plates are usually much ornamented.

3 P. cinctum has been charged with a fishy odor.

VI The Division Chrysophyta contains two classes which include flagellates, the Xanthophyceae or Heterokontae (yellow-green algae) and the Chrysophyceae (golden-green algae) (Figures 10-13). The third class, the diatoms (Bacillarieae or Bacillariophyceae), is not flagellated.

A None of the Xanthophyceae are included in the present discussion.

B The Chrysophyceae possess chromatophores of a golden brown color, usually without pyrenoids. Food reserves are stored as fats and leucosin. One or two flagella; if two, they may be of equal or unequal length. Internal silicious cysts may be formed. Tend to occur in relatively pure water. Both holozoic and holophytic types of nutrition are found. Certain minute forms considered to be highly sensitive to pollution.

1 Mallomonas is a solitary, free swimming genus with one flagellum (Figure 13).

a Covered with silicious plates, many of which bear long silicious spines.

b Tends to inhabit clear water lakes at moderate depths.

c M. caudata imparts a fishy odor to the water.

2 Chrysococcus cells are minute, with two yellowish brown chromatophores and one flagellum.

a Droplets of stored oil present

b Lorica distinct

c C. rufesceus a clean water form

3 Chromulina has a single flagellum, may accumulate single large granule of leucosin at posterior end of cell (Figure 10).

C. rosanoffii is a clean water indicator.

4 Synura is a biflagellate form growing in radially arranged, naked colonies (Figure 11).

a Flagella equal in length

b Cells pyriform or egg shaped

c S. uvella produces a cucumber or muskmelon odor

5 Uroglenopsis forms free swimming colonies of approximately spherical biflagellate cells embedded near the periphery of a roughly spherical gelatinous matrix.

a Flagella are unequal in length.

b U. americana may range up to .5 mm in diameter, and contain 1000 or more cells.

c U. am. also causes strong fishy odor.

6 Dinobryon may be solitary or colonial, free floating or attached. Colonies are arborescent (Figure 12).

a Cells attached to bottom of open roughly cylindrical lorica or sheath.

b Two flagella of unequal length.

c Conspicuous eyespot usually present.

d Taxonomy of the group is involved.

e D. sertularia may clog filters.

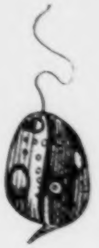
f D. divergens may cause a fishy odor.

(fig 1 - 13 from Lackey and Callaway)

1

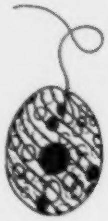
Euglena

2



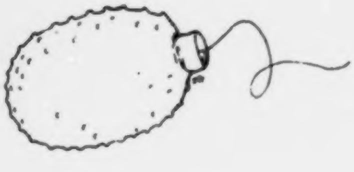
Phacus

3



Lepocinclis

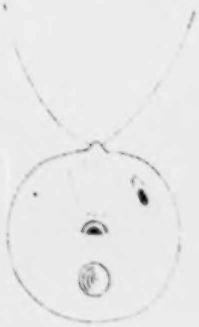
4



Trachelomonas

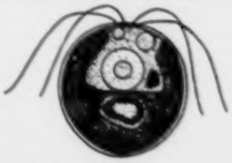
GREEN EUGLENOIDS

5



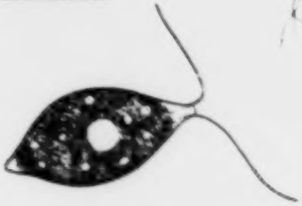
Chlamydomonas

7



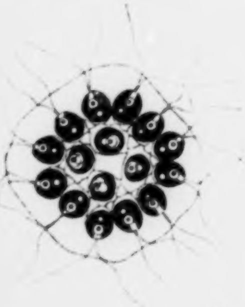
Carteria

6



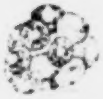
Chlorogonium

8



Gonium

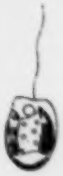
9



Pandorina

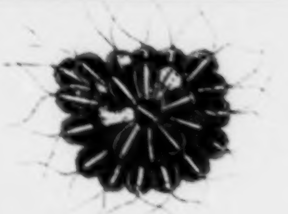
GREEN PHYTOMONADS

10



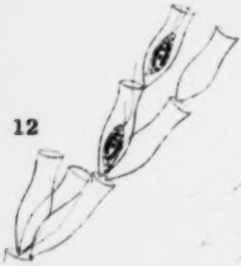
Chromulina

11



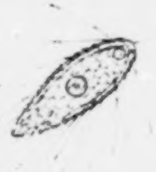
Synura

12



Dinobryon

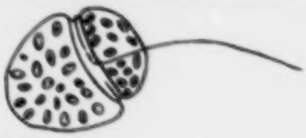
13



Mallomonas

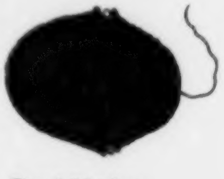
YELLOW CHRYSOMONADS

14



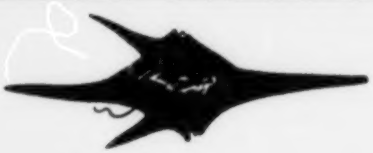
Massartia

15



Peridinium

16



Ceratium

YELLOW-BROWN DINOFLAGELLATES

3-70

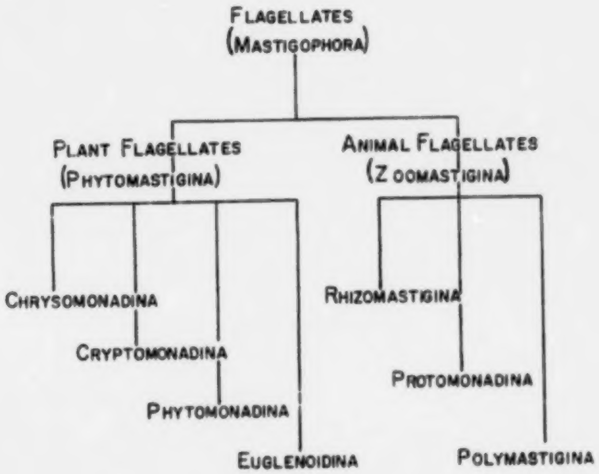

FLAGELLATES
(MASTIGOPHORA)
PLANT FLAGELLATES
(PHYTOMASTIGINA)
ANIMAL FLAGELLATES
(ZOOMASTIGINA)
CHRYSOMONADINA
CRYPTOMONADINA
PHYTOMONADINA
EUGLENOIDINA
RHIZOMASTIGINA
PROTOMONADINA
POLYMASTIGINA

Figure 17 Phylogenetic Family Tree of the Flagellates
(from Calaway and Lackey)

VII There are two distinctive groups whose systematic position is uncertain, the chloromonads and the cryptomonads. Only one genus of the latter group is included here.

A Rhodomonas may range from bright red through pale brown to olive green.

1 Cells compressed, narrow at the posterior end

2 Two flagella of unequal length

3 R. lacustris a small form intolerant of pollution

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1 Calaway, Wilson T. and Lackey, James B. Waste Treatment Protozoa Flagellata. Series No. 3. Univ. Fla. 140 pp. 1962.

2 Gojdics, M. The Genus Euglena. Univ. of Wisconsin Press, Madison. 1953.

This outline was prepared by H. W. Jackson, former Chief Biologist, National Training Center, MOTD, OWPO, USEPA, Cincinnati, Ohio 45268.

Descriptor: Algae, Flagellates

FILAMENTOUS GREEN ALGAE[1]

I MANY OF THESE FORMS ARE VISIBLE TO THE UNAIDED EYE

A They may be several inches or even a foot or more in length. In many cases they are not found as isolated filaments but develop in large aggregations to form floating or attached mats or tufts. The attached forms are generally capable of remaining alive after being broken away from the substrate.

B Included in the group are some of the most common and most conspicuous algae in freshwater habitats. A few of them have been given common names such as pond silk, green felt, frog-spawn algae, and stoneworts.

II CHARACTERISTICS OF FILAMENTOUS ALGAE

A These algae are in the form of cylindrical cells held together as a thread ("filament"), which may be in large clusters or growing separately. Some are attached to rocks or other materials while others are free. They may be unbranched ("simple") or branched; the tips are gradually narrowed ("attenuated") to a point. Some are surrounded by a mucilaginous envelope.

B Each cell is a short or long cylinder with a distinct wall. The protoplast contains a nucleus which is generally inconspicuous.

1 The plastid or chloroplast is the prominent structure. It contains chlorophyll and starch centers ("pyrenoids"), and varies in size, shape, and number per cell. It may be pressed against the wall ("parietal") or extend through the central axis of the cell ("axial").

2 Clear areas of cell sap ("vacuoles") are generally present in the cell.

C Specialized structures are present in some filaments.

1 Some filaments break up into "H" sections.

2 Apical caps are present in others.

3 Replicate end walls are present in some.

4 Some filaments are overgrown with a cortex.

5 Attached filaments have the basal cell developed into a "hold fast cell" (hapteron).

III REPRODUCTION MAY TAKE PLACE BY SEVERAL METHODS

A Cell division may occur in all cells or in certain selected ones.

B Spores called akinetes may be formed.

C Zoospores (motile) and aplanospores (non-motile) are common.

D Fragmentation of filaments may occur.

E Many kinds reproduce sexually, often with specialized gamete forming cells.

IV EXAMPLES OF FILAMENTOUS GREEN ALGAE ARE:

A Unbranched forms

*Spirogyra
*Mougeotia
Zygnema
Ulothrix
Microspora
Tribonema
Desmidium
Oedogonium

*Planktonic or occasionally planktonic

---

[1] Including a few yellow-brown and red algae.

B Branched forms

Cladophora
Pithopora
Stigeoclonium
Chaetophora
Draparnaldia
Rhizoclonium
Audouinella
Bulbochaete
Nitella

C Specialized and related forms

Schizomeris
Comsopogon
Batrachospermum
Chara
Lemanea
Vaucheria

V Habitats include the planktonic growths as well as surface mats or blankets and benthic attached forms on rocks in riffles of streams, at the shoreline of lakes and reservoirs, concrete walls, etc.

A Attached forms may break loose to become mixed with plankton or to form floating mats.

B Cladophora mats are a nuisance on many beaches on the Great Lakes.

VI IMPORTANCE OF FILAMENTOUS GREEN ALGAE

A They may cause clogging of sand filters, intake screens, and canals.

B They may produce tastes and odors in water or putrid odor (also producing H_2S which damage painted surfaces) when washed ashore around lakes and reservoirs.

C They may cause unsightly growths or interfere with fishing and swimming in recreation areas.

D Some are useful as indicators of water quality in relation to pollution.

E Together with other algae, they release oxygen required by fish, and for self-purification of streams.

F They may produce a slime which interferes with some industrial uses of water such as in paper manufacture and in cooling towers.

VII CLASSIFICATION

A Ulotrichaceae

Ulothrix, Microspora, Hormidium

B Cladophoraceae

Cladophora, Pithophora, Rhizoclonium

C Chaetophoraceae

Chaetophora, Stigeoclonium, Draparnaldia

D Oedogeniaceae

Oedogonium, Bulbochaete

E Schizomeridaceae

1 Schizomeris

F Ulvaceae

Enteromorpha, Monostroma

G Zygnemataceae

Zygnema, Spirogyra, Mougeotia

H Desmidiaceae

Desmidium, Hyalotheca

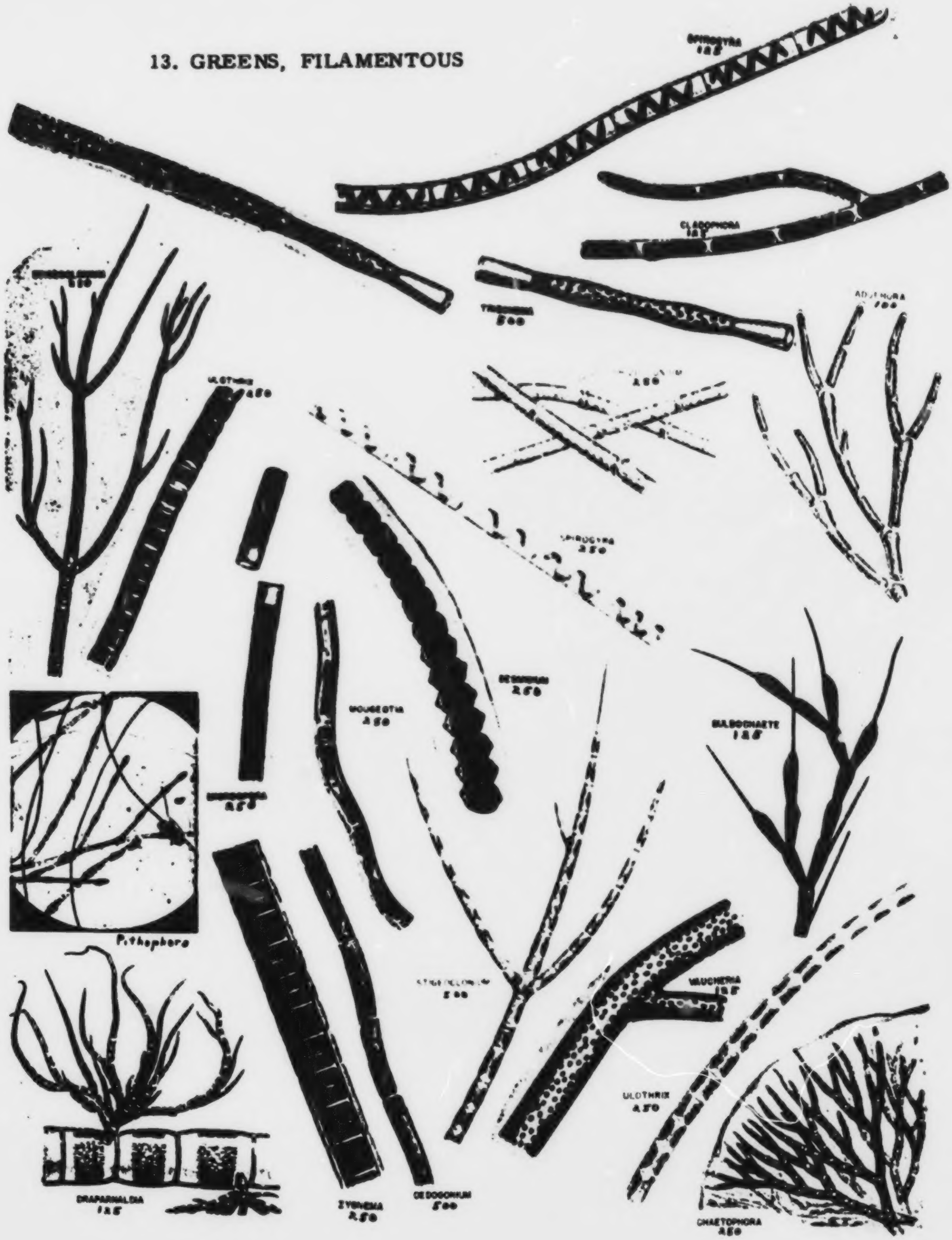
I Tribonemataceae

Tribonema, Bumilleria

J Characeae

Chara, Nitella, Tolypella

13. GREENS, FILAMENTOUS


SPIROGYRA
125
CLADOPHORA
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TRIBONEMA
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ULOTHRIX
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SPIROGYRA
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DESMIDIUM
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MOUGEOTIA
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BULBOCHAETE
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Pithophora
STIGEOCLONIUM
500
VAUCHERIA
125
ULOTHRIX
250
DRAPARNALDIA
125
ZYGNEMA
250
OEDOGONIUM
500
CHAETOPHORA
250

VIII IDENTIFICATION

A Branching and attenuation are of primary importance.

B Plastids: shape, location and number per cell are essential.

C Other characteristics include grouping of filaments, gelatinous envelope and special features such as "H" shaped fragments.

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This outline was prepared by C.M. Palmer, Former Aquatic Biologist, In Charge, Interference Organisms Studies, Microbiology Activities, Research and Development, Cincinnati Water Research Laboratory, FWPCA.

Descriptor: Green Algae

COCCOID GREEN ALGAE[1]

I INTRODUCTION

For the sake of convenience, the non-motile green algae are to be discussed in two sections: those that tend to live as relatively discrete or free floating planktonic units, and those that tend to grow in masses or mats of material, often filamentous in nature, attached or free floating.

II The green or "grass green" algae is one of the most varied and conspicuous groups with which we have to deal. The forms mentioned below have been artificially grouped for convenience according to cell shape. Botanists would list these genera in several different categories in the family "Chlorophyceae."

These algae typically have a relatively high chlorophyll content, and the food reserves accumulated are typically starch. Thus these forms will usually give a typical black or deep purple color when treated with iodine.

A Individual cells of the following genera are perfectly round, or nearly so. The first does not form organized colonies. In the next two the colonies themselves tend to be round, and in the last, the colonies are triangular or irregular, and the cells bear long slender spines.

1 *Chlorella* cells are small and spherical to broadly elliptical. They have a single parietal chloroplast. This is a very large genus with an unknown number of similar appearing species, living in a great variety of habitats. Although often accumulating in great numbers, organized colonies are not formed.

a *Chlorella ellipsoides* is reported to be a common plankton form.

b *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* and *Chlorella vulgaris* are often found in organically enriched waters. Indeed a dominance of *Chlorella* species is considered in some places to be an indication that a sewage stabilization pond is functioning to maximum capacity.

c *Chlorella pyrenoidosa* is reported as a filter clogger in water treatment plants.

2 *Sphaerocystis* colonies are free floating and almost always with a perfectly spherical, homogeneous gelatinous envelope. Up to 32 spherical cells may be included. *Sphaerocystis schroeteri*, the only species, is of wide occurrence in the plankton of lakes and reservoirs.

3 *Coelastrum* forms coenobial* colonies of up to 128 cells. Generally spherical or polygonal in shape--both cells and colony. Cells connected by protoplasmic processes of varying length. *Coelastrum microporum* is often reported in the plankton of water supplies. Not surrounded by gelatinous envelope as in *Sphaerocystis*.

4 *Micractinium*. The cells of this alga are spherical to broadly ellipsoidal and are usually united in irregular 4-celled coenobes. These in turn are almost always united with other coenobes to form multiple associations of up to 100 or more cells. The free face of

---

[1] Including miscellaneous yellow-brown algae.

*A coenobe is a colony in which the number of cells does not increase during the life of the colony. It was established by the union of several independent swimming cells which simply stick together and increase in size.

each cell in a coenobe bears from one to seven very long slender setae or hairs.

Micractinium pusillum. This is a strictly planktonic genus.

B Individual cells of the following genera are elongate. In the first two they are relatively straight or irregular and pointed. The next two are also long and pointed, but bent into a tight "C" shape (one in a gelatinous envelope, one naked). The last one (Actinastrum) is long and straight, but with blunt ends, and with the cells of a coenobe attached at a point.

1 Ankistrodesmus cells are usually long and slender, tapering to sharp point at both ends. They may be straight, curved, or twisted into loose aggregations. Ankistrodesmus falcatus is often found in the plankton in water supplies and is considered to be one of the forms indicative of clean water.

2 Schroederia is a solitary, free floating alga. Cells are long and pointed at both ends. May be bent in various ways. Terminal points are continued as long slender spines which may be forked and bent back, or end as a plate. Of the three species reported in this country, Schroederia setigera has been reported in water supplies.

3 Selenastrum cells are pointed at both ends, and bent so that their tips approach each other. They tend to occur in groups of 4, 8, or 16, which may be associated with other groups to form masses of a hundred or more cells. There is no gelatinous envelope. Selenastrum gracile occurs in the plankton of water supplies.

4 Kirchneriella. The cells of this genus are generally relatively broad, tapering to a sharp or rounded point at each end, and the whole cell bent into a C-shape. They usually occur in groups of four to eight in a broad, homogeneous, gelatinous matrix. Kirchneriella lunaris is known principally from the plankton.

5 Actinastrum colonies or "coenobes" are composed of 4, 8, or 16 elongate cells that radiate in all directions from a common center.

Actinastrum is a widely distributed plankton organism. There are two species:

Actinastrum gracillimum and Actinastrum Hantzschii differ only in the sharpness of the taper toward the tips of the cells. The former has relatively little taper, and the latter, more.

C Cells of the following genera are associated in simple naked colonies. The first has elongate cells arranged with their long axes parallel (although some cells may be curved). The last two are flat plate-like coenobes. Crucigenia has four-celled coenobes while Pediastrum coenobes may be larger, appear plate-like, and are much more ornate.

1 Scenedesmus is a flat plate of elliptical to double ended pointed cells arranged with their long axes parallel. Coenobes consist of up to 32, but usually 4 to 8 cells. The number of cells in a coenobe may vary from mother to daughter colony. The appearance of cells may vary considerably with the species.

a Scenedesmus bijuga, S. dimorphus, and S. quadricauda are common planktonic forms.

b Scenedesmus quadricauda is also common in organically enriched water, and may become dominant.

c Scenedemus abundans is reported to impart a grassy odor to drinking water.

2 Crucigenia forms free floating four-celled coenobes that are solitary or joined to one another to form plate-like multiple coenobes of 16 or more cells. The cells may be elliptical, triangular, trapezoidal, or semi-circular in surface view. Crucigenia quadrata is a species often reported from water supplies.

3 Pediastrum. Colonies are free floating with up to 128 polygonal cells arranged in a single plane. There may or may not be open spaces between the cells. The exact arrangement of the cells seems to depend largely on the chance distribution of the original motile swarming zoaspores at the time the coenobe was formed. Peripheral cells may differ in shape from interior cells.

a Pediastrum boryanum and P. duplex are frequently found in the plankton, but seldom dominate.

b Pediastrum tetras has been reported to impart a grassy odor to water supplies.

D Cells of the following Genera are slightly elongated.

1 Oocystis. The cells of Oocystis may be solitary, or up to 16 cells may be surrounded by a partially gellatinized and greatly expanded mother cell wall. Cells may be ellipsoidal or almost cylindrical, cell wall thin, no spines or other ornamentation. Oocystis borgei, for example, is of frequent occurrence in the plankton.

2 Dimorphococcus cells are arranged in groups of four, and these tetrads are united to one another in irregularly shaped free floating colonies by the branching remains of old mother-cell walls. Two shapes of cell are normally found in each tetrad (hence the name), two longer ovate cells end to end, and a pair of slightly shorter, C-shaped cells on either side. Dimorphococcus lunatus is a widely distributed plankton organism, sometimes reported in considerable numbers.

E A distinctive group of green algae characterized by a median constriction dividing the cell into two geometrically similar halves is known generally as the "desmids." (Closterium and Penium do not have this construction). Each half of the cell is known as a "semicell." The nucleus lies in the "isthmus." Extremes of ornamentation and structural variety exist. Most are unicellular, but a few are filamentous or have the cells associated in shapeless colonies. They are found sparingly in the plankton almost everywhere, but predominate in acid waters.

1 Closterium is one of the exceptional genera without a median constriction. The cells are elongate, attenuated toward the tips but not sharply pointed, usually somewhat bent.

a Closterium aciculare is a planktonic species.

b Closterium moniliforme is reported as a filter clogging organism.

2 Cosmarium is a large, poorly defined genus of over 280 species, many of which apparently intergrade with other genera such as Staurastrum. In general, it can be said that Cosmarium species are relatively small, with a length only slightly greater than the width, and with a deep median constriction. Shapes of the semicells may vary greatly. Although shallow surface ornamentation may occur, long spines do not occur.

a Cosmarium botrytis is reported in plankton from water supply reservoirs.

b Cosmarium portianum is said to impart a grassy odor to water.

c Other species have been reported to be sufficiently resistant to chlorine to penetrate rapid sand filters and occur in distribution systems in considerable numbers.

3 *Micrasterias* is relatively common, ornate.

4 *Euastrum* cells tend to be at least twice as long as broad, with a deeply constricted isthmus, and a dip or incision at the tip of each semicell. The cell wall may be smooth, granulate, or spined.

Euastrum oblongum is reported as a planktonic species from water reservoirs. It has also been noted as intolerant of pollution, and hence an indicator of clean water.

5 *Staurastrum* is the commonest of the desmids in the plankton of fresh waters; the genus contains upwards of 245 species in the United States alone. Intergradation with other genera such as *Cosmarium* make it a difficult group to define. Most of the species are radially symmetrical, and almost all have a deeply constricted isthmus. The cell wall mav be smooth, ornamented, or spined in a variety of ways. Relatively long truncated processes extending from the cell body in symmetrical patterns are common.

a *Staurastrum polymorphum* is a typical planktonic form.

b *Staurastrum punctulatum* is reported as an indicator of clean water.

c *Staurastrum paradoxicum* causes a grassy odor in water.

III A type of "green" alga known as "golden green" (Xanthophyceae) is represented in the plankton by two genera. In these algae there is a predominance of yellow over green pigments, hence frequently imparting a yellowish or golden tint to the cell. Reserve food material is stored as oil and leucosin, rather than as starch, hence giving a negative test with iodine in most cases.

A *Botryococcus braunii* is a widely distributed plankton alga, though it is rarely abundant.

1 The plant body is a free floating colony of indefinite shape, with a cartilaginous and hyaline or orange-colored envelope; surface greatly wrinkled and folded.

2 Individual cells lie close together, in several aggregates connected in reticular fashion by strands of the colonial envelope.

3 The envelope structure tends to obscure cell structure. Considerable deep orange colored oil may collect within the envelope, outside of the cells, obscuring cell structure.

B *Ophiocytium capitatum* like *Botryococcus*, is widely distributed, but seldom abundant.

1 Both ends of cylindrical cell are rounded, with a sharp spine extending therefrom.

2 Many nuclei and several chloroplasts are present.

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Descriptor: Chlorophyta

DIATOMS

I GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

A Diatoms have cells of very rigid form due to the presence of silica in the wall. They contain a brown pigment in addition to the chlorophyll. Their walls are ornamented with markings which have a specific pattern for each kind.

1 The cells often are isolated but others are in filaments or other shapes of colonies.

2 The protoplast contains normal cell parts, the most conspicuous being the plastids. No starch is present.

B Cell shapes include the elongate ("pennate") and the short cylindric ("centric") one view of which is circular.

1 Pennate diatoms may be symmetrical, transversely unsymetrical, or longitudinally unsymmetrical.

C Wall is formed like a box with a flanged cover fitting over it.

1 "Valve" view is that of the top of the cover or the bottom of the box.

2 "Girdle" view is that of the side where flange of cover fits over the box.

3 End view is also possible for pennate types.

D Cell markings include:

1 Raphe or false raphe extending longitudinally.

2 Striations which are lines of pores extending from the area of the raphe to the margin. Coarse ones are "costae".

3 Nodules which may be terminal and central.

4 Internal shelves ("septae") extending longitudinally or transversely.

II REPRODUCTION

A The common method is by cell division. Two new half cells are formed between the halves of the parent cell.

B Auxospores and gametes may also be formed.

III EXAMPLES OF COMMON DIATOMS:

A Pennate, symmetrical:

Navicula
Pinnularia
Synedra
Nitzschia
Diatoma
Fragilaria
Tabellaria
Cocconeis

B Pennate, unsymmetrical:

Gomphonema
Surirella
Cymbella
Achnanthes
Asterionella
Meridion

C Centric:

Cyclotella
Stephanodiscus
Melosira

IV Habitats include fresh and salt water. Both planktonic and attached forms occur, the latter often are broken loose. They may be attached by stalks or by their slimy surface.

A Many diatoms are more abundant in late autumn, winter, and early spring than in the warmer season.

B The walls of dead diatoms generally remain undecomposed and may be common in water. Many deposits of fossil diatoms exist.

V Importance of diatoms is in part due to their great abundance and their rigid walls.

A They are the most important group of organisms causing clogging of sand filters.

B Several produce tastes and odors in water, including the obnoxious fishy flavor.

C Mats of growth may cause floors or steps of swimming pools to be slippery.

D They may be significant in determining water quality in relation to pollution.

E They release oxygen into the water.

VI Classification. There are several thousand species of diatoms. Only the most common of the freshwater forms are considered here.

A Centrales Group

1 Representative genera:

Cyclotella
Stephanodiscus
Melosira
Rhizosolenia
Biddulphia

B Pennals Group

1 Fragilarineae. The false raphe group.

Representative genera:

Tabellaria
Meridion
Diatoma
Fragilaria
Synedra
Asterionella

2 Achnanthineae. Group with cells having one false and one true raphe.

a Representative genera:

Cocconeis
Achnanthes

3 Naviculineae. True raphe group with raphe in center of valve.

a Representative genera:

Navicula
Pinnularia
Stauroneis
Pleurosigma
Amphiprora
Gomphonema
Cymbella
Epithemia

4 Surirellineae. True raphe group with raphe near one side of valve.

a Representative genera:

Nitzschia
Cymatopleura
Surirella
Campylodiscus

VII IDENTIFICATION OF DIATOMS

A Some genera are easily recognized by their distinctive shape.

B Many genera and most species can be determined only after diatoms are freed of their contents and observed under the high magnification of an oil immersion lens of the compound microscope.

C Contents of the cell are generally not used in identification. Only the characteristics of the wall are used.

D For identification of genera, most important features include:

1 Cell shape, and form of colony

2 Raphe and false raphe

3 Striations

4 Septa

E For identification of species, measurements involving the number of striae per 10 microns, the direction of the striae and many other characteristics may be needed.

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Descriptor: Diatoms

FILAMENTOUS BACTERIA

I INTRODUCTION

There are a number of types of filamentous bacteria that occur in the aquatic environment. They include the sheathed sulfur and iron bacteria such as Beggiatoa, Crenothrix and Sphaerotilus, the actinomycetes which are unicellular microorganisms that form chains of cells with special branchings, and Gallionella, a unicellular organism that secretes a long twisted ribbon-like stalk. These filamentous forms have at times created serious problems in rivers, reservoirs, wells, and water distribution systems.

II BEGGIATOA

Beggiatoa is a sheathed bacterium that grows as a long filamentous form. The flexible filaments may be as large as 25 microns wide and 100 microns long. (Figure 1)

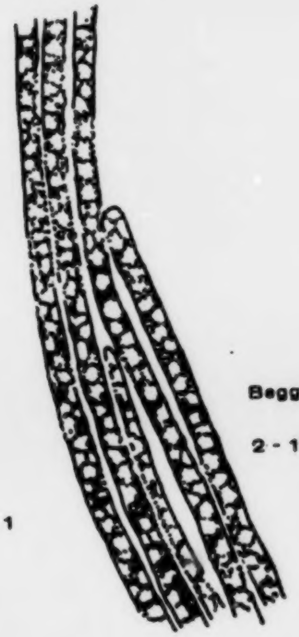

Figure 1

Transverse separations within the sheath indicate that a row of cells is included in one sheath. The sheath may be clearly visible or so slight that only special staining will indicate that it is present.

The organism grows as a white slimy or felted cover on the surface of various objects undergoing decomposition or on the surface of stagnant areas of a stream receiving sewage. It has also been observed on the base of a trickling filter and in contact aerators.

It is most commonly found in sulfur springs or polluted waters where H_2S is present. Beggiatoa is distinguished by its ability to deposit sulfur within its cells; the sulfur deposits appear as large refractile globules. (Figure 2)

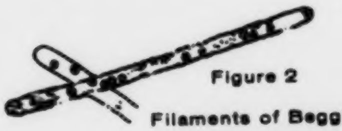

Figure 2

Filaments of Beggiatoa containing granules of sulphur.

When H_2S is no longer present in the environment, the sulfur deposits disappear. Dr. Pringsheim of Germany has recently proved that the organism can grow as a true autotroph obtaining all its energy from the oxidation of H_2S and using this energy to fix CO_2 into all material. It can also use certain organic materials if they are present along with the H_2S.

Faust and Wolfe, and Scotten and Stokes have grown the organism in pure culture in this country. Beggiatoa exhibits a motility that is quite different from the typical flagellated motility of most bacteria; the filaments have a flexible gliding motion.

The only major nuisance effect of *Beggiatoa* known has been overgrowth on trickling filters receiving waste waters rich in H_2S. The normal microflora of the filter was suppressed and the filter failed to give good treatment. Removal of the H_2S from the water by blowing air through the water before it reached the filters caused the slow decline of the *Beggiatoa* and a recovery of the normal microflora. *Beggiatoa* usually indicates polluted conditions with the presence of H_2S rather than being a direct nuisance.

III ACTINOMYCETES AND EARTHY ODORS IN WATER

Actinomycetes are unicellular microorganisms, 1 micron in diameter, filamentous, non-sheathed, branching monopodially, and reproduced by fission or by means of special conidia. (Figure 3)

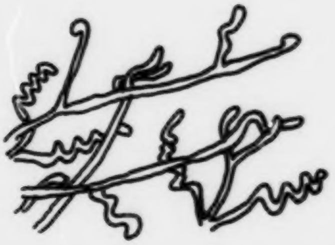

Figure 3 Filaments of Actinomycetes

Their filamentous habit and method of sporulation is reminiscent of fungi. However, their size, chemical composition, and other characteristics are more similar to bacteria. (Figure 4)

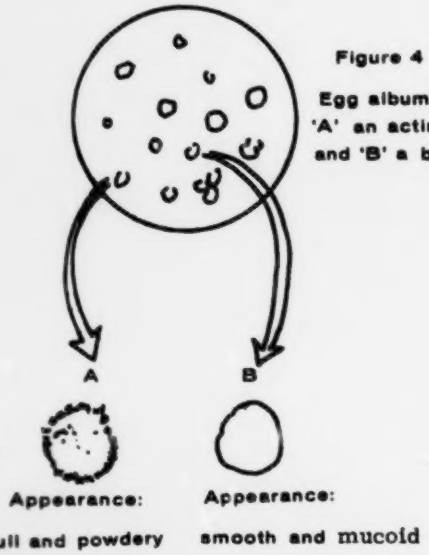

Figure 4

Egg albumin isolation plate. 'A' an actinomycete colony, and 'B' a bacterial colony

These organisms may be considered as a group intermediate between the fungi and the bacteria. They require organic matter for growth but can use a wide variety of substances and are widely distributed.

Actinomycetes have been implicated as the cause of earthy odors in some drinking waters (Romano and Safferman, Silvey and Roach) and in earthy smelling substance has been isolated from several members of the group by Gerber and Lechevalier. Safferman and Morris have reported on a method for the "Isolation and Enumeration of Actinomycetes Related to Water Supplies." But the actinomycetes are primarily soil microorganisms and often grow in fields or on the banks of a river or lake used for the water supply. Although residual chlorination will kill the organisms in the treatment plant or distribution system, the odors often are present before the water enters the plant. Use of permanganate oxidation and activated carbon filters have been most successful of the methods tried to remove the odors from the water. Control procedures to prevent the odorous material from being washed into the water supply by rains or to prevent possible development of the actinomycetes in water rich in decaying organic matter is still needed.

IV FILAMENTOUS IRON BACTERIA

The filamentous iron bacteria of the Sphaerotilus-Leptothrix group, Crenothrix, and Gallionella have the ability to either oxidize manganous or ferrous ions to manganic or ferric salts or are able to accumulate precipitates of these compounds within the sheaths of the organisms. Extensive growths or accumulations of the empty, metallic encrusted sheaths devoid of cells, have created much trouble in wells or water distribution systems. Pumps and back surge valves have been clogged with masses of material, taste and odor problems have occurred, and rust colored masses of material have spoiled products in contact with water.

Crenothrix polyspora has only been examined under the microscope as we have never been able to grow it in the laboratory. The organism is easily recognized by its special morphology. Dr. Wolfe of the University of Illinois has published photomicrographs of the organism. (Figure 5)

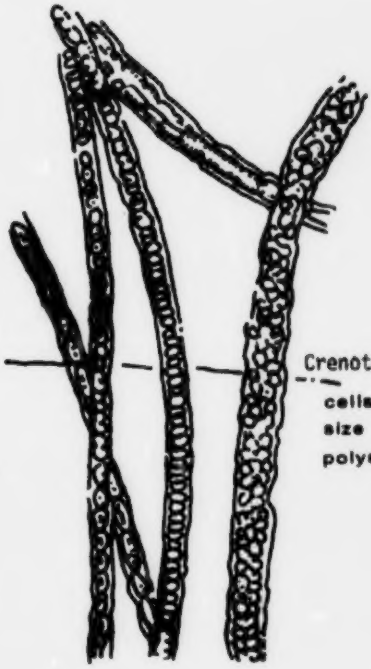

Figure 5

Crenothrix polyspora

cells are very variable in size from small cocci or polyspores to cells 3×12μ

Organisms of the Sphaerotilus-Leptothrix group have been extensively studied by many investigators (Dondero et. al., Dondero, Stokes, Waitz and Lackey, Mulder and van Veen, and Amberg and Cormack.) Under different environmental conditions the morphological appearance of the organism varies. The usual form found in polluted streams or bulked activated sludge is Sphaerotilus natans. (Figure 6)

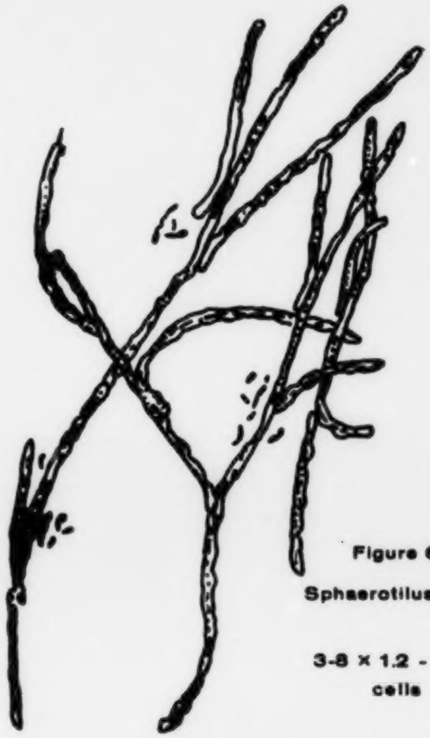

Figure 6

Sphaerotilus natans

3-8 × 1.2 - 1.8μ cells

This is a sheathed bacterium consisting of long, unbranched filaments, whereby individual rod-shaped bacterial cells are enclosed in a linear order within the sheath. The individual cells are 3-8 microns long and 1.2-1.8 microns wide. *Sphaerotilus* grows in great masses; at times in streams or rivers that receive wastes from pulp mills, sugar refineries, distilleries, slaughterhouses, or milk processing plants. In these conditions, it appears as large masses or tufts attached to rocks, twigs, or other projections and the masses may vary in color from light grey to reddish brown. In some rivers large masses of *Sphaerotilus* break loose and clog water intake pipes or foul fishing nets. When the cells die, taste and odor problems may also occur in the water.

Amberg, Cormack, and Rivers and McKeown have reported on methods to try to limit the development of *Sphaerotilus* in rivers by intermittant discharge of wastes. Adequate control will probably only be achieved once the wastes are treated before discharge to such an extent that the growth of *Sphaerotilus* is no longer favored in the river. *Sphaerotilus* grows well at cool temperatures and slightly low DO levels in streams receiving these wastes and domestic sewage. Growth is slow where the only nitrogen present is inorganic nitrogen; peptones and proteins are utilized preferentially.

Gallionella is an iron bacterium which appears as a kidney-shaped cell with a twisted ribbon-like stalk emanating from the concavity of the cell. *Gallionella* obtains its energy by oxidizing ferrous iron to ferric iron and uses only CO_2 and inorganic salts to form all of the cell material; it is an autotroph. Large masses of *Gallionella* may cause problems in wells or accumulate in low-flow low-pressure water mains. Super chlorination (up to 100 ppm of sodium hypochlorite for 48 hours) followed by flushing will often remove the masses of growth and periodic treatment will prevent the nuisance effects of the extensive masses of *Gallionella*. (Figure 7)

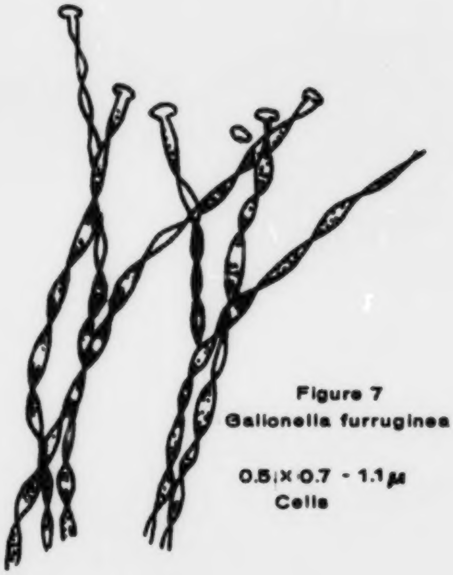

Figure 7
Gallionella furruginea

$0.5 \times 0.7 - 1.1\mu$
Cells

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Descriptors: Aquatic Bacteria, Sphaerotilus Actinomycetes, Nocardia

FUNGI AND THE "SEWAGE FUNGUS" COMMUNITY

I INTRODUCTION

A Description

Fungi are heterotrophic achylorophyllous plant-like organisms which possess true nuclei with nuclear membranes and nucleoli. Dependent upon the species and in some instances the environmental conditions, the body of the fungus, the thallus, varies from a microscopic single cell to an extensive plasmodium or mycelium. Numerous forms produce macroscopic fruiting bodies.

B Life Cycle

The life cycles of fungi vary from simple to complex and may include sexual and asexual stages with varying spore types as the reproductive units.

C Classification

Traditionally, true fungi are classified within the Division Eumycotina of the Phylum Mycota of the plant kingdom. Some authorities consider the fungi an essentially monophyletic group distinct from the classical plant and animal kingdoms.

II ACTIVITY

In general, fungi possess broad enzymatic capacities. Various species are able to actively degrade such compounds as complex polysaccharides (e.g., cellulose, chitin, and glycogen), proteins (casein, albumin, keratin), hydrocarbons (kerosene) and pesticides. Most species possess an oxidative or microaerophilic metabolism, but anaerobic catabolism is not uncommon. A few species show anaerobic metabolism and growth.

III ECOLOGY

A Distribution

Fungi are ubiquitous in nature and members of all classes may occur in large numbers in aquatic habitats. Sparrow (1968) has briefly reviewed the ecology of fungi in freshwaters with particular emphasis on the zoosporic phycomycetes. The occurrence and ecology of fungi in marine and estuarine waters has been examined recently by a number of investigators (Johnson and Sparrow, 1961; Johnson, 1968; Myers, 1968; van Uden and Fell, 1968).

B Relation to Pollution

Wm. Bridge Cooke, in a series of investigations (Cooke, 1965), has established that fungi other than phycomycetes occur in high numbers in sewage and polluted waters. His reports on organic pollution of streams (Cooke, 1961; 1967) show that the variety of the Deuteromycete flora is decreased at the immediate sites of pollution, but dramatically increased downstream from these regions.

Yeasts, in particular, have been found in large numbers in organically enriched waters (Cooke, et al., 1960; Cooke and Matsuura, 1963; Cooke, 1965b; Ahearn, et al., 1968). Certain yeasts are of special interest due to their potential use as "indicator" organisms and their ability to degrade or utilize proteins, various hydrocarbons, straight and branch chained alkyl-benzene sulfonates, fats, metaphosphates, and wood sugars.

C "Sewage Fungus" Community (Plate I)

A few microorganisms have long been termed "sewage fungi." The most common microorganisms included in this group are the iron bacterium Sphaerotilus natans and the phycomycete Leptomitus lacteus.

1 Sphaerotilus natans is not a fungus; rather it is a sheath bacterium of the order chlamydobacteriales. This polymorphic bacterium occurs commonly in organically enriched streams where it may produce extensive slimes.

a Morphology

Characteristically, S. natans forms chains of rod shaped cells (1.1 - 2.0μ x 2.5 - 17μ) within a clear sheath or trichome composed of a protein-polysaccharidae-lipid complex. The rod cells are frequently motile upon release from the sheath; the flagella are lophotrichous. Occasionally two rows of cells may be present in a single sheath. Single trichomes may be several mm in length and bent at various angles. Empty sheaths, appearing like thin cellophane straws, may be present.

b Attached growths

The trichomes are cemented at one end to solid substrata such as stone or metal, and their cross attachment and bending gives a superficial similarity to true fungal hyphae. The ability to attach firmly to solid substrates gives S. natans a selective advantage in the population of flowing streams. For more thorough reviews of S. natans see Prigsheim (1949) and Stokes (1954).

2 Leptomitus lacteus also produces extensive slimes and fouling flocs in fresh waters. This species forms thalli typified by regular constrictions.

a Morphology

Cellulin plugs may be present near the constrictions and there may be numerous granules in the cytoplasm. The basal cell of the thallus may possess rhizoids.

b Reproduction

The segments delimited by the partial constrictions are converted basipetally to sporangia. The zoospores are diplanetic (i.e., dimorphic) and each possesses one whiplash and one tinsel flagellum. No sexual stage has been demonstrated for this species.

c Distribution

For further information on the distribution and systematics of L. lacteus see Sparrow (1960), Yerkes (1966) and Emerson and Weston (1967). Both S. natans and L. lacteus appear to thrive in organically enriched cold waters (5°-22°C) and both seem incapable of extensive growth at temperatures of about 30°C.

d Gross morphology

Their metabolism is oxidative and growth of both species may appear as reddish brown flocs or stringy slimes of 30 cm or more in length.

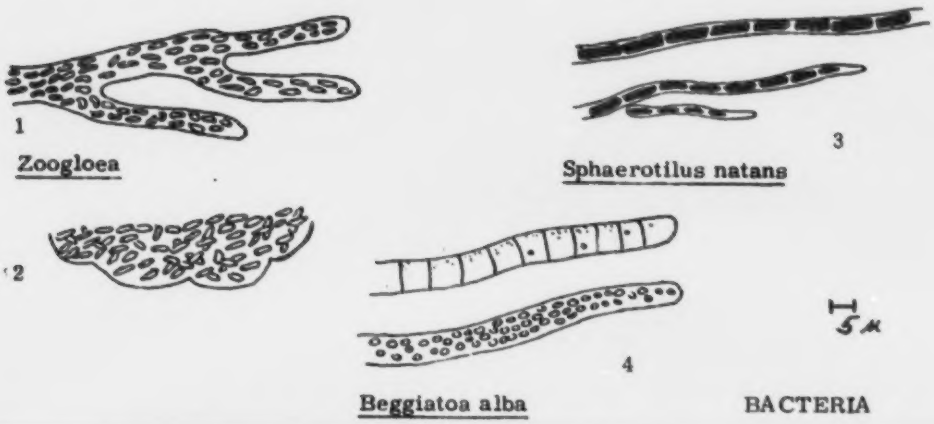
e Nutritive requirements

Sphaerotilus natans is able to utilize a wide variety of organic compounds, whereas L. lacteus does not assimilate simple

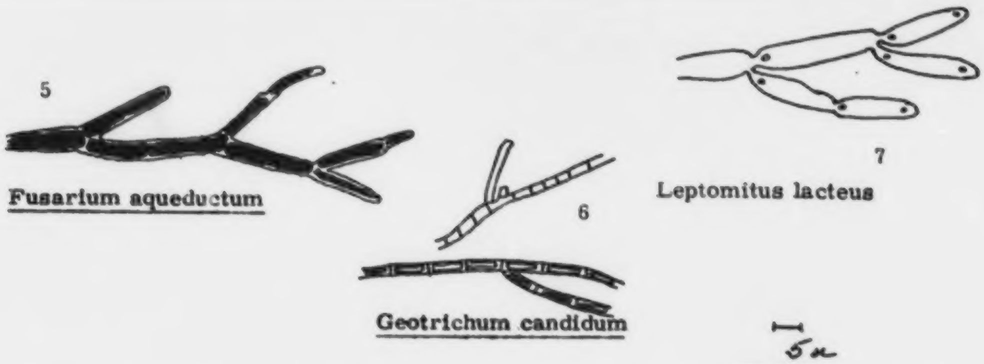
PLATE I

"SEWAGE FUNGUS" COMMUNITY OR "SLIME GROWTHS"

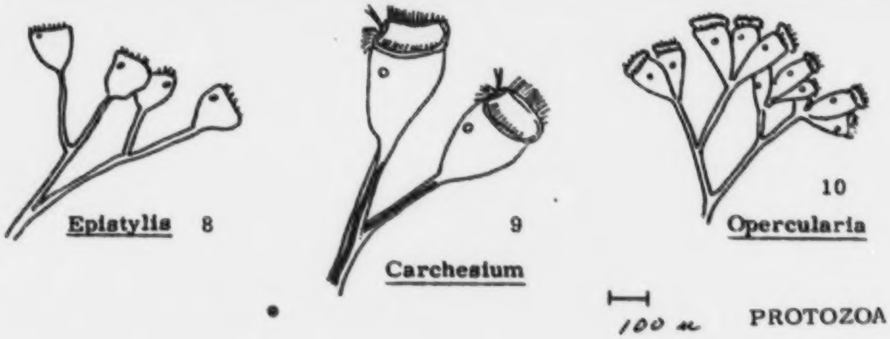
(Attached "filamentous" and slime growths)


1
Zoogloea
3
Sphaerotilus natans
2
5 µ
4
Beggiatoa alba

BACTERIA


5
Fusarium aqueductum
6
Geotrichum candidum
7
Leptomitus lacteus
5 µ

FUNGI


Epistylis 8
9
Carchesium
10
Opercularia
100 µ

PROTOZOA

PLATE II

REPRESENTATIVE FUNGI

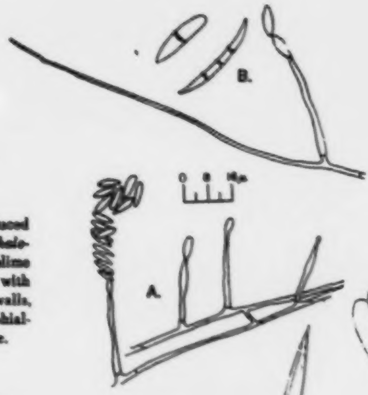


Figure 1

Fusarium aquaeductuum (Radlmacher and Rabenhorst) Saccardo

Microconidia (A) produced from phialides as in *Cephalosporium*, remaining in slime balls. Macroconidia (B), with one to several cross walls, produced from collared phialides. Drawn from culture.

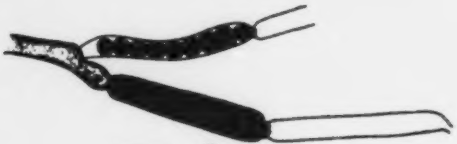


Figure 2

Leptomitus lacteus (Roth) Agardh

Cells of the hyphae showing constrictions with cellulin plugs. In one cell large zoospores have been delimited. Redrawn from Coker, 1923.

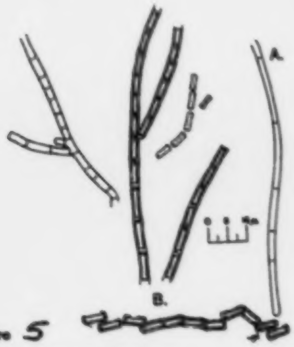


Figure 3

Geotrichum candidum Link ex Persoon

Mycelium with short cells and arthrospores. Young hypha (A); and mature arthrospores (B). Drawn from culture.

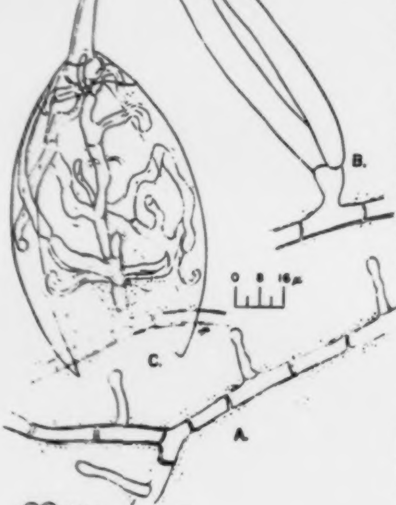


Figure 4

Zoophagus insidians Sommerstorff

Mycelium with hyphal pegs (A) on which rotifers will become impaled; gemmae (B) produced as conidia on short hyphal branches; and rotifer impaled on hyphal peg (C) from which hyphae have grown into the rotifer whose shell will be discarded after the contents are consumed. Drawn from culture.

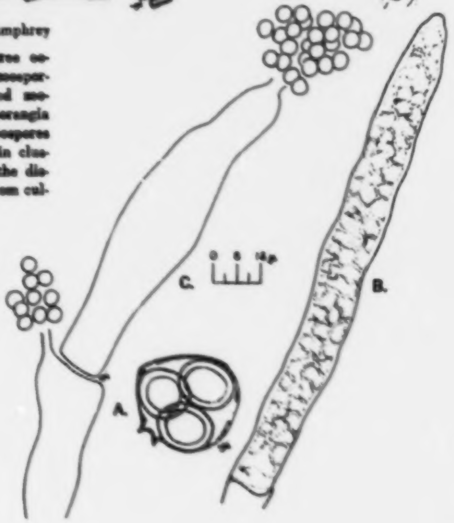
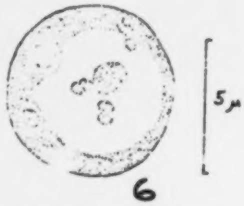


Figure 5

Achlya americana Humphrey

Oogonium with three oospores (A); young zoosporangium with delimited zoospores (B); and zoosporangia (C) with released zoospores that remain encysted in clusters at the mouth of the discharge tube. Drawn from culture.



6

Dermocystidium marinum

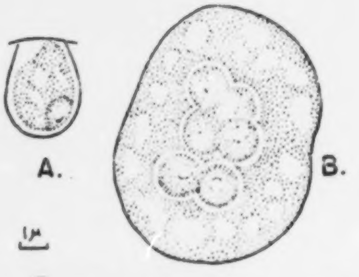


FIGURE 7 *Haplosporidium costale.* A—mature spore; B—early plasmodium.

Figures 1 through 5 from Cooke; Figures 6 and 7 from Galtsoff.

sugars and grows most luxuriantly in the presence of organic nitrogenous wastes.

3 Ecological roles

Although the "sewage fungi" on occasion attain visually noticeable concentrations, the less obvious populations of deuteromycetes may be more important in the ecology of the aquatic habitat. Investigations of the past decade indicate that numerous fungi are of primary importance in the mineralization of organic wastes; the overall significance and exact roles of fungi in this process are yet to be established.

D Predacious Fungi

1 Zoophagus insidians

(Plate II, Figure 4) has been observed to impair functioning of laboratory activated sludge units (see Cooke and Ludzack).

2 Arthrobotrys is usually found along with Zoophagus in laboratory activated sludge units. This fungus is predacious upon nematodes. Loops rather than "pegs" are used in snaring nematodes.

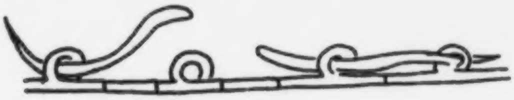


PLATE II (Figure 4)

IV CLASSIFICATION

In recent classification schemes, classes of fungi are distinguished primarily on the basis of the morphology of the sexual and zoosporic stages. In practical schematics, however, numerous fungi do not demonstrate these stages. Classification must therefore be based on the sum total of the morphological and/or physiological characteristics. The extensive review by Cooke (1963) on methods of isolation and classification of fungi from sewage and polluted waters precludes the need herein of extensive keys and species illustrations. A brief synopsis key of the fungi adapted in part from Alexopholous (1962) is presented on the following pages.

This outline was prepared by Dr. Donald G. Ahearn, Professor of Biology, Georgia State College, Atlanta, Georgia 30303.

Descriptor: Aquatic Fungi

KEY TO THE MAJOR TAXA OF FUNGI

1 Definite cell walls lacking, somatic phase a free living Plasmodium.......................... Sub-phylum Myxomycotina ..(true slime molds)..Class Myxomycetes

1' Cell walls usually well defined, somatic phase not a free-living Plasmodium...................(true fungi)...............Sub-phylum Eumycotina 2

2 Hyphal filaments usually coenoctytic, rarely septate, sex cells when present forming oospores or zygospores, aquatic species propagating asexually by zoospores, terrestrial species by zoospores, sporangiospores conidia or conidia-like sporangia ."Phycomycetes"... 3

The phycomycetes are generally considered to include the most primitive of the true fungi. As a whole, they encompass a wide diversity of forms with some showing relationships to the flagellates, while others closely resemble colorless algae, and still others are true molds. The vegetative body (thallus) may be non-specialized and entirely converted into a reproductive organ (holocarpic), or it may bear tapering rhizoids, or be mycelial and very extensive. The outstanding characteristics of the thallus is a tendency to be nonseptate and, in most groups, multinucliate; cross walls are laid down in vigorously growing material only to delimit the reporductive organs. The spore unit of nonsexual reproduction is borne in a sporangium, and, in aquatic and semiaquatic orders, is provided with a single posterior or anterior flagellum or two laterally attached ones. Sexual activity in the phycomycetes characteristically results in the formation of resting spores.

2' (1') Hyphal filaments when present septate, without zoospores, with or without sporangia, usually with conida; sexual reproduction absent or culminating in the formation of asci or basidia 8

3 (2) Flagellated cells characteristically produced 4

3' Flagellated cells lacking or rarely produced 7

4 (3) Motile cells uniflagellate 5

4' Motile cells biflagellate 6

5 (4) Zoospores posteriorly uniflagellate, formed inside the sporangium...class.. Chytridiomycetes

The Chytridiomycetes produce asexual zoospores with a single posterior whiplash flagellum. The thallus is highly variable; the most primitive forms are unicellular and holocarpic and in their early stages of development are plasmodial (lack cell walls), more advanced forms develop rhizoids and with further evolutionary progress develop mycelium. The principle chemical component of the cell wall is chitin, but cellulose is also present. Chytrids are typically aquatic organisms but may be found in other habitats. Some species are chitinolytic and/or keratinolytic. Chytrids may be isolated from nature by baiting (e.g. hemp seeds or pine pollen) Chytrids occur both in marine and fresh water habitats and are of some economic importance due to their parasitism of algae and animals. The genus Dermocystidium may be provisionally grouped with the chytrids. Species of this genus cause serious epidemics of oysters and marine and fresh water fish.

5' Zoospores anteriorly uniflagellate, formed inside or outside the sporangium............class .... Hyphochytridiomycetes

These fungi are aquatic (fresh water or marine) chytrid-like fungi whose motile cells possess a single anterior flagellum of the tinsel type (feather-like). They are parasitic on algae and fungi or may be saprobic. Cell walls contain chitin with some species also demonstrating cellulose content. Little information is available on the biology of this class and at present it is limited to less than 20 species.

6 (4') Flagella nearly equal, one whiplash the other tinsel..................class.......Oomycetes

A number of representatives of the Oomycetes have been shown to have cellulosic cell walls. The mycelium is coenocytic, branched and well developed in most cases. The sexual process results in the formation of a resting spore of the oogamous type, i.e., a type of fertilization in which two heterogametangia come in contact and fuse their contents through a pore or tube. The thalli in this class range from unicellular to profusely branched filamentous types. Most forms are eucarpic; zoospores are produced throughout the class except in the more highly advanced species. Certain species are of economic importance due to their destruction of food crops (potatoes and grapes) while others cause serious diseases of fish (e.g. Saprolegina parasitica). Members of the family Saprolegniaceae are the common "water molds" and are among the most ubiquitous fungi in nature. The order Lagenidiales includes only a few species which are parasitic on algae, small animals, and other aquatic life. The somatic structures of this taxon are holocarpic and endobiotic. The sewage fungi are classified in the order Leptomitales. Fungi of this order are characterized by the formation of refractile constrictions; "cellulin plugs" occur throughout the thalli or, at least, at the bases of hyphae or to cut off reproductive structures. Leptomitus lacteus may produce rather extensive fouling flocs or slimes in organically enriched waters.

6' Flagella of unequal size, both whiplash.......................class... Plasmodiophoromycetes

Members of this class are obligate endoparasites of vascular plants, algae, and fungi. The thallus consists of a plasmodium which develops within the host cells. Nuclear division at some stages of the life cycle is of a type found in no other fungi but known to occur in protozoa. Zoosporangia which arise directly from the plasmodium bear zoospores with two unequal anterior falgella. The cell walls of these fungi apparently lack cellulose.

7 (3') Mainly saprobic, sex cell when present a zygospore..................class ... Zygomycetes

This class has well developed mycelium with septa developed in portions of the older hyphae; actively growing hyphae are normally non-septate. The asexual spores are non-motile sporangiospores (aplanospores). Such spores lack flagella and are usually aerialy disseminated. Sexual reproduction is initiated by the fusion of two gametangia with resultant formation of a thick-walled, resting spore, the zygospore. In the more advanced species, the sporangia or the sporangiospores are conidia-like. Many of the Zygomycetes are of economic importance due to their ability to synthesize commercially valuable organic acids and alcohols, to transform steroids such as cortisone, and to parasitize and destroy food crops. A few species are capable of causing disease in man and animals (zygomycosis).

7' Obligate commensals of arthropods, zygospores usually lacking.......class.... Trichomycetes

The Trichomycetes are an ill-studied group of fungi which appear to be obligate commensals of arthropods. The trichomycetes are associated with a wide variety of insecta, diplopods, and crustacea of terrestrial and aquatic (fresh and marine) habitats. None of the members of this class have been cultured in vitro for continued periods of times with any success. Asexual reproduction is by means of sporangiospores. Zygospores have been observed in species of several orders.

8 (2') Sexual spores borne in asci.......................................class....... Ascomycetes

In the Ascomycetes the products of meiosis, the ascospores, are borne in sac like structures termed asci. The ascus usually contains eight ascospores, but the number produced may vary with the species or strain. Most species produce extensive septate mycelium. This large class is divided into two subclasses on the presence or absence of an ascocarp. The Hemiascomycetidae lack an ascocarp and do not produce ascogenous hyphae; this subclass includes the true yeasts. The Euascomycetidae usually are divided into three series (Plectomycetes, Pyrenomycetes, and Discomycetes) on the basis of ascocarp structure.

8' Sexual spores borne on basidia...................................class..... Basidiomycetes

The Basidiomycetes generally are considered the most highly evolved of the fungi. Karyogamy and meiosis occur in the basidium which bears sexual exogenous spores, basidiospores. The mushrooms, toadstools, rusts, and smuts are included in this class.

8'' Sexual stage lacking.........................Form class.(Fungi Imperfecti).Deuteromycetes

The Deuteromycetes is a form class for those fungi (with morphological affinities to the Ascomycetes or Basidiomycetes) which have not demonstrated a sexual stage. The generally employed classification scheme for these fungi is based on the morphology and color of the asexual reproductive stages. This scheme is briefly outlined below. Newer concepts of the classification based on conidium development after the classical work of S. J. Hughes (1953) may eventually replace the gross morphology system (see Barron 1968).

KEY TO THE FORM-ORDERS OF THE FUNGI IMPERFECTI

1 Reproduction by means of conidia, oidia, or by budding.................................... 2
1' No reproductive structures present.. Mycelia Sterilia

2 (1) Reproduction by means of conidia borne in pycnidia.......................... Sphaeropsidales
2' Conidia, when formed, not in cycnidia.. 3

3 (2') Conidia borne in acervuli.. Melanconiales
3' Conidia borne otherwise, or reproduction by oidia or by budding.................. Moniliales

KEY TO THE FORM-FAMILIES OF THE MONILIALES

1 Reproduction mainly by unicellular budding, yeast-like; mycelial phase, if present, secondary, arthrospores occasionally produced, manifest melanin pigmentation lacking...... 2
1' Thallus mainly filamentous; dark melanin pigments sometimes produced.................... 3

2 (1) Ballistospores produced .... Sporobolomycetaceae
2' No ballistospores.. Cryptococcaceae

3 Conidiophores, if present, not united into sporodochia or synnemata...................... 4
3' Sporodechia present.. Tuberculariaceae
3'' Synnemata present Stilbellaceae

4 (3) Conidia and conidiophores or oidia hyaline or brightly colored................... Moniliaceae
4' Conidia and/or conidiophores, containing dark melanin pigment................. Dematiaceae

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PROTOZOA, NEMATODES, AND ROTIFERS

I GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

A Microbial quality constitutes only one aspect of water sanitation; microchemicals and radionuclides are attracting increasing amount of attention lately.

B Microbes considered here include bacteria, protozoa, and microscopic metazoa; algae and fungi excluded.

C Of the free-living forms, some are members of the flora and fauna of surface waters; others washed into the water from air and soil; still others of wastewater origin; nematodes most commonly from sewage effluent.

D Hard to separate "native" from "foreign" free-living microbes, due to close association of water with soil and other environments; generally speaking, bacteria adapted to water are those that can grow on very low concentrations of nutrient and zoomicrobes adapted to water are those that feed on algae, and nematodes, especially bacteria eaters, are uncommon in water but in large numbers in sewage effluent.

E More species and lower densities of microbes in clean water and fewer species and higher densities in polluted water.

F Pollution-tolerance or nontolerance of microbes closely related to the DO level required in respiration.

G From pollution viewpoint, the following groups of microbes are of importance: Bacteria, Protozoa, Nematoda, and Rotifera.

II BACTERIA

A No ideal method for studying distribution and ecology of bacteria in freshwater.

B According to Collins,(9) *Pseudomonas*, *Achrombacter*, *Alcaligenes*, *Chromobacterium*, *Flavobacterium*, and *Micrococcus* are the most widely distributed and may be considered as indigenous to natural waters. Sulfur and iron bacteria are more common in the bottom mud.

C Actinomycetes, *Bacillus* sp. *Aerogenes* sp., and nitrogen-fixation bacteria are primarily soil dwellers and may be washed into the water by runoffs.

E Nematodes are usually of aerobic sewage treatment origin.

D *E. coli*, streptococci, and *Cl. perfringens* are true indicators of fecal pollution.

III PROTOZOA

A Classification

1 Single-cell animals in the most primitive phylum (Protozoa) in the animal kingdom.

2 A separate kingdom, Protista, to include protozoa, algae, fungi, and bacteria proposed in the 2nd edition of Ward-Whipple's *Fresh-Water Biology*.(10)

3 Four subphyla or classes:

a Mastigophora (flagellates)-Subclass phytomastigina dealt with under algae; only subclass Zoomastigina included here; 4 orders:

1) Rhizomastigina - with flagellum or flagella and pseudopodia

2) Protomonadina - with 1 to 2 flagella; mostly free-living many parasitic

3) Polymastigina - with 3 to 8 flagella; mostly parasitic in elementary tract of animals and man

4) Hypermastigina - all inhabitants of alimentary tract of insects.

b Ciliophora or Infusoria (ciliates) - no pigmented members; 2 classes:

1) Ciliata - cilia present during the whole trophic life; containing majority of the ciliates

2) Suctoria - cilia present while young and tentacles during trophic life.

c Sarcodina (amoebae) - Pseudopodia (false feet) for locomotion and food-capturing; 2 subclasses:

1) Rhizopoda - Pseudopodia without axial filaments; 5 orders:

a) Proteomyxa - with radiating pseudopodia; without test or shell

b) Mycetozoa - forming plasmodium; resembling fungi in sporangium formation

c) Amoebina - true amoeba - forming lobopodia

d) Testacea - amoeba with single test or shell of chitinous material

e) Foraminifera - amoeba with 1 or more shells of calcareous nature; practically all marine forms

d Sporozoa - no organ of locomotion; amoeboid in asexual phase; all parasitic

B General Morphology

1 Zoomastigina:

Relatively small size (5 to 40 μ); with the exception of Rhizomastigina, the body has a definite shape (oval, leaf-like, pear-like, etc.); common members with 1 or 2 flagella and some with 3, 4, or more; few forming colonies; cytostome present in many for feeding.

2 Ciliophora:

Most highly developed protozoa; with few exceptions, a macro and a micronucleus; adoral zone of membranellae, mouth, and groove usually present in swimming and crawling forms, some with conspicuous ciliation of a disc-like anterior region and little or no body cilia (stalked and shelled forms); Suctoria nonmotile (attached) and without cytostome cysts formed in most.

3 Sarcodina:

Cytoplasmic membrane but no cell wall; endoplasm and ectoplasm distinct or indistinct; nucleus with small or large nucleolus; some with test or shell; moving by protruding pseudopodia; few capable of flagella transformation; freshwater actinopods usually sperical with many radiating axopodia; some Testacea containing symbiotic algae and mistaken for pigmented amoebae; cysts with single or double wall and 1 or 2 nuclei.

4 Sporozoa: to be mentioned later.

C General Physiology

1 Zoomastigina:

Free-living forms normally holozic; food supply mostly bacteria in growth film on surfaces or clumps relatively aerobic, therefore the first protozoa to disappear in anaerobic conditions and re-appearing at recovery; reproduction by simple fission or occasionally by budding.

2 Ciliophora:

Holozoic; true ciliates concentrating food particles by ciliary movement around the mouth part; suctoria sucking through tenacles; bacteria and small algae and protozoa constitute main food under natural conditions; some shown in laboratory to thrive on dead organic matter and serum protein: not as aerobic as flagellates - some surviving under highly anaerobic conditions, such as Metopus; reproduction by simple fission, conjugation or encystment.

3 Sarcodina:

Holozoic; feeding through engulfing by pseudopodia; food essentially same as for ciliates; DO requirement somewhat similar to ciliates - the small amoebae and Testacea frequently present in large numbers in sewage effluent and polluted water; reproduction by simple fission and encystation.

IV NEMATODES

A Classification

1 All in the phylum Nemata (nonsegmented round worms); subdivided by some authors into two classes:

Secernentea - 3 orders:
(phasmids)

Tylenchida, Rhabditida, Strongylida, and Teratocephalida; with papillae on male tail, caudal glands absent.

Adenophora - 6 orders:
(aphasmids)

Araeolaimida, Dorylaimida, Chromdorida, Monhysterida, Enoplida, and Trichosyringida no papillae on male caudal glands absent.

2 Orders encountered in water and sewage treatment - Free-living forms inhabitating sewage treatment plants are usually bacteria-feeders and those feeding on other nematodes; those inhabitating clean waters feeding on plant matters; they fall into the following orders:

3 Tylenchida - Stylet in mouth; mostly plant parasites; some feed on nematodes, such as Aphelenchoides.

4 Rhabditida - No stylet in mouth or caudal glands in tail; mostly bacteria-feeders; common genera: Rhabiditis, Diplogaster, Diplogasteroides, Monochoides, Pelodera, Panagrellus, and Turbatrix.

5 Dorylaimida - Relatively large nematodes; stylet in mouth; feeding on other nematodes, algae and probably zoomicrobes; Dorylaimus common genus.

6 Chromadorida - Many marine forms; some freshwater dwellers feeding on algae; characterized by strong ornamentation of knobs, bristles or punctations in cuticle.

7 Monhysterida - Freshwater dwellers; esophago-intestinal valve spherical to elongated; ovaries single or paired, usually straight; common genus in water - Monhystera.

8 Enoplida - Head usually with a number of setae; Cobb reported one genus, Mononchulus, in sand filters in Washington, D.C.

B General Morphology

Round, slender, nonsegmented (transverse markings in cuticle of some) worms; some small (about $\frac{1}{2}$ mm long, as Tricephalobus), many 1 to 2 mm long (Rhabditis, Diplogaster, and Diplogasteriodes for instance), and some large (2 to 7 mm, such as Dorylaimus); sex separated but few parthenogenetic; complete alimentary canal; with elaborate mouth parts with or without stylet; complete reproductive system in each sex; no circulatory or respiratory system; complex nervous system with conspicuous nerve ring across oesophagus.

C General Physiology

1 Feeding - Most sewage treatment plant dwellers feeding on bacteria; others preying on protozoa, nematodes, rotifers,

etc., clean-water species apparently vegetarians; those with stylet in mouth use the latter to pierce the body of animal or plant and suck contents; metabolic waste mostly liquid containing ammonium carbonate or bicarbonate; enteric pathogens swallowed randomly with suspending fluid, hence remote possibility of sewage effluent-borne nematodes being pathogen-carriers.

2 Oxygen requirement - DO apparently diffused through cuticle into body; DO requirement somewhat similar to protozoa; Rhabditis tolerating reduced DO better than other Rhabditida members; all disappear under sepsis in liquid; some thrive in drying sludge.

3 Reproduction - Normal life cycle requires mating, egg with embryo formation, hatching of eggs inside or outside femals, 4 larval stages, and adult; few reproduce in the absence of males.

V ROTIFERS

A Classification:

1 Classified either as a class of the phylum Aschelminthes (various forms of worms) or as a separate phylum (Rotifera); commonly called wheel animalcules, on account of apparent circular movement of cilia around head (corona); corona contracted when crawling or swimming and expanded when attached to catch food.

2 Of the 3 classes, 2 (Seisonidea and Bdelloidea) grouped by some authors under Digononta (2 ovaries) and the other being Monogononta (1 ovary); Seisonidea containing mostly marine forms.

3 Class Digononta containing 1 order (Bdelloida) with 4 families, Philodinedae being the most important.

4 Class Monogononta comprising 3 orders: Notommatida (mouth not near center of corona) with 14 families, Floscularida Melicertida (corona with two wreaths of cilia and furrow between them) with 3 families; most import genera included in the order Notommatida: Brachionus, Keratella, Monostyla, Trichocerca, Asplanchna, Polyarthra, Synchaeta, Microcodon; common genera under the order Flosculariaceae: Floscularia, and Atrochus. Common genera under order Melicertida: Limnias and Conochilus.

5 Unfortunately orders and families of rotifers partly based on character of corona and trophi (chewing organ), which are difficult to study, esp. the latter; the foot and cuticle much easier to study.

B General Morphology and Physiology

1 Body weakly differentiated into head, neck, trunk, and foot, separated by folds; in some, these regions are merely gradual changes in diameter of body and without a separate neck; segmentation external only.

2 Head with corona, dosal antenna, and ventral mouth; mastax, a chewing organ, located in head and neck, connected to mouth anteriorly by a ciliated gullet and posteriorly to a large stomach occupying much of the trunk.

3 Common rotifers reproducing parthenogenetically by diploid eggs; eggs laid in water, cemented to plants, or carried on female until hatching.

4 Foot, a prolongation of body, usually with 2 toes; some with one toe; some with one toe and an extra toe-like structure (dorsal spur).

5 Some, like Philodina, concentrating bacteria and other microbes and minute particulate organic matter by ciliary movement on corona larger microbes chewed by mastax; some such as Monostyla feeding on clumped matter, such as bacterial growth, fungal masses, etc. at bottom; virus generally not ingested - apparently undetected by cilia.

6 DO requirement somewhat similar to protozoa; some disappearing under reduced DO, others, like Philodina, surviving at as little as 2 ppm DO.

VI SANITARY SIGNIFICANCE

A Pollution tolerant and pollution non-tolerant species - hard to differentiate - requiring specialist training in protozoa, nematodes, and rotifers.

B Significant quantitative difference in clean and polluted waters - clean waters containing large variety of genera and species but quite low in densities.

C Aerobic sewage treatment processes (trickling filters and activated sludge processes, even primary settling) ideal breeding grounds for those that feed on bacteria, fungi, and minute protozoa and present in very large numbers; effluents from such processes carrying large numbers of these zoomicrobes; natural waters receiving such effluents showing significant increase in all 3 categories.

D Possible Pathogen and Pathogen Carriers

1 Naegleria causing swimming associated meningoencephalitis and Acanthameoba causing nonswimming associated cases.

2 Amoebae and nematodes grown on pathogenic enteric bacteria in lab; none alive in amoebic cysts; very few alive in nematodes after 2 days after ingestion; virus demonstrated in nematodes only when very high virus concentrations present; some freeliving amoebae parasitizing humans.

3 Swimming ciliates and some rotifers (concentrating food by corona) ingesting large numbers of pathogenic enertic bacteria, but digestion rapid; no evidence of concentrating virus; crawling ciliates and flagellates feeding on clumped organisms.

4 Nematodes concentrated from sewage effluent in Cincinnati area showing live E. coli and streptococci, but no human enertic pathogens.

VII EXAMINATION OF WATER FOR MICROBES

A Bacteria - not dealt here.

B Protozoa and rotifers - should be included in examination for planktonic microbes.

C Nematodes

D Laboratory Apparatus(3)

1 Sample Bottles - One-gallon glass or plastic bottles with metal or plastic screw caps, thoroughly washed and rinsed three times with distilled water.

2 Capillary Pipettes and Rubber Bulbs - Long (9 in.) Pasteur capillary pipettes and rubber bulbs of 2 ml capacity.

3 Filtration Unit - Any filter holder assembly used in bacteriological examination.(1) The funnel should be at least 650 ml and the filter flask at least 2 liter capacity.

4 Filter Membranes - Millepore SS (SS 047 MM) type membranes or equivalent.

5 Microscope - Binocular microscope with 10X eyepiece, 4X, 10X, and 43X objectives, and mechanical stage.

E Collection of Water Samples

Samples are collected in the same manner as those for bacteriological examination,(1) except that a dechlorinating agent is not needed. One-half to one gallon samples are collected from raw water and one-gallon samples from tap water. Refrigeration is not essential and samples may be transported without it unless examination is to be delayed for more than five days.

F Concentration of Samples

1 One gallon of tap water can usually be filtered through a single 8-u membrane within 15 minutes unless the water has high turbidity. At least one gallon of sample should be used in a single examination. Immediately after the last of the water is disappearing from the membrane, the suction line is disconnected and the membrane placed on the wall of a clean 50 to 100 ml beaker and flushed repeatedly with about 2-5 ml of sterile distilled water

with the aid of a capillary pipette and a rubber bulb. The concentrate is then pipetted into a clean Sedgewick-Rafter Counting Cell and is ready for examination.

2 In concentration of raw water samples having visible turbidity, two to four 8-micron membranes may be required per sample, with filtration through each membrane being limited to not more than 30 minutes. Samples ranging from 500 ml to 2 liters may be filtered with one membrane, depending on degree of turbidity. After filtration the membranes are placed on the walls of separated beakers and washed as above. To prevent the particulates from obscuring the nematodes, the washing from each filter is examined in a separate counting chamber.

G Direct Microscopic Examination

Each counting chamber containing the filter concentrate is first examined under a 4X objective. Unless the concentrate contains more than 100 worms, the whole cell area is surveyed for nematodes, with respect to number, developmental stage, and motility. When an object having an outline resembling that of a nematode is observed, it is re-examined under a 10X objective for anatomical structures, unless the object exhibits typical nematode movement, which is sufficient for identifying the object as a nematode. When the concentrate contains more than 100 worms, the worm density can be estimated by counting the number of worms in representative microscopic fields and multiplying the average number of worms per field by the number of fields in the cell area. The nematode density may be expressed as number of worms per gallon with or without differentiation as to adult or larval stages or as to viability.

H General Identification of Nematodes

1 While actively motile nematodes can be readily recognized by any person who has some general concept of microscopic animals, the nonmotile or sluggishly motile nematodes may be confused with root fibers, plant filaments of various types, elongated ciliates such as Homalozoon vermiculare, or segments of appendages of small crustacea. To facilitate a general identification of nematodes, the gross morphology of three of the free-living nematodes that are frequently found in water supplies is shown in the attached drawing. The drawing provides not only the general anatomy for recognition of nematodes but also most of the essential structures for guidance to those who want to use the "Key to Genera" in chapter No. 15 on Nemata by B. G. Chitwood and M. W. Allen in the book, Fresh Water Biology.(10)

2 Under normal conditions, practically all nematodes seen in samples of finished water are in various larval stages and will range from 100 to 500 microns in length and 10 to 40 microns in width. Except in the fourth (last) stage, the larvae have no sexual organs but show other structural characteristics.

3 If identification of genera is desired, the filter washings are centrifuged at 500 rpm for a few minutes. The supernate is discarded, except a few drops, and the sediment is resuspended in the remaining water. A drop of the final suspension is examined under both 10X and 43X objectives for anatomical characteristics without staining, and for supplementary study of structures the rest is fixed in 5% formalin or other fixation fluid and stained according to instructions given in Chitwood and Allen's Chapter on Nemata,(7) Goodey's Soil and Freshwater Nematodes(11) or other books on nematology.

VIII USE OF ZOOMICROBES AS POLLUTION INDEX

A Idea not new, protozoa suggested long ago; many considered impractical because of the need of identifying pollution-intolerant and pollution-tolerant species - protozoologist required. Method also time consuming.

B Can use them on a quantitative basis - nematodes, and nonpigmented protozoa present in small numbers in clean water. Numbers greatly increased when polluted with effluent from aerobic treatment plant or recovering from sewage pollution; no significant error introduced when clean-water members included in the enumeration if a suitable method of computing the pollution index developed.

C Most practical method involves the equation: $\frac{A + B + 1000\ C}{A} = Z.P.I.$,

where
A = number of pigmented protozoa,
B = non pigmented protozoa, and
C = nematodes in a unit volume of sample,
and Z.P.I. = zoological pollution index.
For relatively clean water, the value of Z.P.I. close to 1; the larger the value above 1, the greater the pollution by aerobic effluent (see attached report on zoomicrobial indicator of water pollution).

IX CONTROL

A Chlorination of effluent

B Prolongation of detention time of effluent

C Elimination of slow sand filters in nematode control.

LIST OF COMMON ZOOLOGICAL ORGANISMS FOUND IN SEWAGE TREATMENT PROCESS - TRICKLING FILTERS

PROTOZOA

Sarcodina - Amoebae

Amoeba proteus; A radiosa

Hartmannella

Arcella Vulgaris

Noegleria gruberi

Actinophrys ___

FLAGELLATA

Bodo caudatus

Pleuromonas jaculans

Oikomonas termo

Cercomonas longicauda

Peranema trichophorum

Swimming type

Ciliophora:

Colpidium colpoda

Colpoda cuculus

Glaucoma pyriformis

Paramecium candatum; P bursaria

Stalked type

Opercularia sp. (short stalk dichotomous)

Vorticella sp. (stalk single and contractile)

Epistylis plicatilis (like opercularia, more colonial, stalk not contractile)

Carchesium sp. (like vorticella but colonial, individual zooids contractile)

Zoothamnium sp. (entire colony contracts)

Crawling type

Euplotes patella

Stylonychia mylitus

Urostyla sp.

Oxytricha sp.

NEMATODA

Diplogaster sp.

Monochoides sp.

Diplogasteroides sp.

Rhabditis sp.

Pelodera sp.

Aphelenchoides sp.

Dorylamus sp.

Chlindrocorpus sp.

Cephalobus sp.

Rhabditolaimus sp.

Monhystera sp.

Trilobus sp.

ROTATORIA

Diglena

Monostyla

Polyarthra

Philodina

Keratella

Brachionus

OLIGOCHAETA (bristle worms)

Aelosoma hemprichi

Aulophorus limosa

Tubifex tubifex

Lumbricillus lineatus

INSECT LARVAE

Chironomus

Psychoda sp. (trickling filter fly)

ARTHROPODA

Lessertia sp.

Porrhomma sp.

Achoratus subuiaticus (collembola)

Folsomia sp. (collembola)

Tomocerus sp. (collembola)

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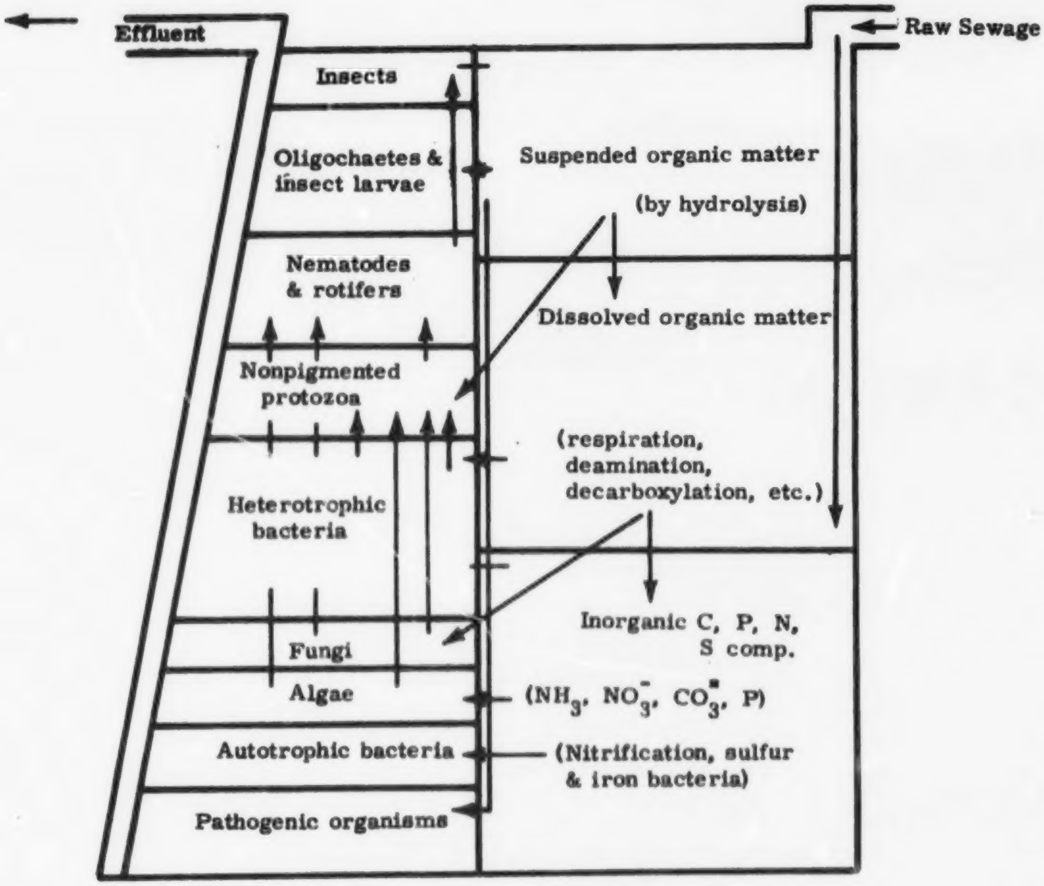
Descriptors: Protozoa, Nematodes, Rotifers


Effluent
Raw Sewage
Insects
Oligochaetes & insect larvae
Nematodes & rotifers
Nonpigmented protozoa
Heterotrophic bacteria
Fungi
Algae
Autotrophic bacteria
Pathogenic organisms
Suspended organic matter
(by hydrolysis)
Dissolved organic matter
(respiration, deamination, decarboxylation, etc.)
Inorganic C, P, N, S comp.
(NH_3, NO_3^-, $CO_3^=$, P)
(Nitrification, sulfur & iron bacteria)

Food Chain in Aerobic Sewage Treatment Processes

ACTIVATED SLUDGE

PROTOZOA

Larger animals (worms, snails, fly larvae, etc.) dominate trickling filters. Why are these always absent from the activated sludge process? 1

Why are there numerous micro-species common to both trickling filters and activated sludge? 2

What organisms besides protozoans and animals are present in activated sludge? 3

What is the advantage(s) of microscopic examination of activated sludge? 4

One sampling site would be the one of choice in sampling an activated sludge plant for microscopic analysis. Why? Where? 5

What organisms predominate in activated sludge? 6

Why are photosynthetic green plants (in contrast to animals) basically absent from the activated sludge process in general and mixed liquor specifically? 7

Why are the same identical species of protozoa found in activated sludge plants all over the world? 8

What is the significance of a microscopic examination of mixed liquor? 9

Define and characterize: 10

- Activated Sludge
- Mixed Liquor
- Flocs

What is the relation between bacterial/protozoan populations in activated sludge and the process itself? 11

At what total magnification were you able to believe the smallest cells observed were in fact bacteria? 12

Activated sludge is a dynamic (although man-manipulated) ecosystem. How does it differ from a natural ecosystem? 13

What is the greatest problem(s) with a wet mount slide preparation? 14

How do you overcome these disadvantages? 15

How do you slow down fast moving protozoans on a wet mount? 16

Why are quantitative counts of protozoa (like number/ml) generally meaningless? 17

What is the significance of proportional counts? 18

Scanning a slide (in making a count) should generally be done at _____X. (Total magnification) 19

The iris diaphragm on the microscope is used to adjust light intensity (true-false). 20

Why sample the surface film of the settleometer? 21

Why is the thinnest film most ideal for a wet mount? 22

What did you learn from the microscopic examination of the activated sludge? 23

What is the physical nature of the flocs observed? 24

What filamentous organisms were observed? 25

Why are "rare" species of no practical significance in microscopic analyses of activated sludge? 26

Why are there no protozoan indicator species of process efficiency in activated sludge? 27

Activated sludge biological communities are temporal in contrast to biological communities in trickling filters which are spatial (TRUE/FALSE). 28

"Seeding" a newly started activated sludge plant with cultures or material from other plants is only a wasted effort (TRUE/FALSE). Justify your answer. 29

If a wet mount slide of mixed liquor is prepared and placed in a petri dish with a wet blotter underneath and allowed to sit for several hours, what will be the distribution of the protozoa under the cover slip?	30
In a mixed liquor sample nearly all of the stalked ciliates have "broken off" the stalks and are free swimming as "telotrochs." What does this indicate?	31
What are Monads? And are they good, bad, or indifferent in activated sludge?	32
What are hypotrichs or crawling ciliates, and are they good, bad or indifferent in activated sludge?	33
What are swimming ciliates, and are they good, bad or indifferent in activated sludge?	34
What are flagellates, and are they good, bad or indifferent in activated sludge?	35
What are amoebae, and are they good, bad, or indifferent in activated sludge?	36
What are the ideal characteristics of a wet mount slide preparation?	37
Why does total community give a better indication of process efficiency in activated sludge?	38
In observing and identifying protozoa one looks for what characteristics of an individual organism?	39
What is the role of bacteria in activated sludge?	40
What is the role of protozoa in activated sludge?	41
Microscopic analysis of the mixed liquor sample can be very quick, simple, and meaningful (TRUE/FALSE).	42

Protozoan communities present in activated sludge reveal: 43

a. Plant efficiency
b. Settleability
c. BOD removal
d. Solids removal
e. Plant loading

(Circle applicable descriptions)

Protozoan communities in activated sludge reveal complete and instantaneous conditions; average of physical and chemical conditions; extremes of chemical and physical conditions. (Draw a line through phrases not true.) 44

Rank in increasing plant efficiency the following protozoan group which would predominate. 45

_____Rotifers
_____Stalked ciliates
_____Amoebae
_____Swimming ciliates
_____Crawling ciliates
_____Flagellates

(For example, use number 1-6. One would be startup conditions or least efficient, and six would be the most efficient.)

Identification is usually done at _____X and sometimes requires _____X. 46

Immersion oil should be used sparingly at what two points on a slide? 47

Which comes first in microscopic examination; scanning at low power to pick out unknowns or higher power to identify? 48

In making proportional count, which total number to count would be better: total of ten organisms or a total of 100 organisms? Why? 49

Why not kill the organisms so you can identify and count them on the slide? 50

What simple chemical solutions are useful to immobilize protozoa if methyl cellulose or polyvinyl alcohol is not available? 51

Initially the wet mount slide should be racked up close to the low power objective: by your eye on the eyepiece through the scope; or by glancing at the actual distance with the naked eye while you rotate the coarse adjustment knob. (Underline which) 52

What are par-focal objectives on the microscope? 53

Why should water on the microscope and all its parts be carefully avoided? 54

If activated sludge is a man manipulated system, are there comparable natural ecosystems? Example? 55

What is the " community" concept in examination of activated sludge? 56

What are the applications of direct microscopist examination of activated sludge? 57

What are rotifers, and are they good, bad or indifferent in activated sludge? 58

List the five kingdoms of organisms and give a specific example for each. 59

______________	______________
______________	______________
______________	______________
______________	______________
______________	______________

What techniques are most useful in identifying an unknown organism, and why is correct identification important? 60

Scanning and counting is done at ______X magnification. Identification of most PROTOZOA usually requires__________X magnification and occassionally ______X magnification. 61

62

OBJ.	TOTAL MAG.	USE
3.5 X	______________	______________
10 X	______________	______________
40 X	______________	______________
100 X	______________	______________

(10 X eyepieces)

__________hand is constantly operating the 63

____________________________________.

__________hand is constantly operating the

____________________________________.

The microscope is manually operated and requires skill and understanding on the part of the operator. A microscope no matter how costly is only as good as the microscopist operating it.

List the basic skills required in utilizing the optimum capability of your microscope. 64

____

____

____

____

____

____

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Descriptors: Microorganisms, Protozoa, Rotifers, Activated Sludge, Biota

FREE-LIVING AMOEBAE AND NEMATODES

I FREE-LIVING AMOEBAE

A Importance of Recognizing Small, Free-Living Amoebae in Water Supplies

1 Commonly found in soil, aerobic sewage effluent and natural, fresh waters - hence, frequently encountered in examination of raw water.

2 Cysts not infrequently found in municipal supplies - not pathogen carriers.

3 Flagellate-amoebae *Naegleria* involved in 50 some cases of meningoencephalitis, about half in the U.S.; associated with swimming in small warm lakes. *Acanthamoeba rhysodes* parasitizing human throats and causing (3 cases) nonswimming-associated meningoencephalitis.

4 Cysts not to be confused with those of *Endamoeba histolytica* in waterborne epidemics.

B Classification of Small, Free-Living Amoebae

1 Recognized classification based on characteristics in mitosis.

2 Common species fall into the following families and genera:

Family Schizopyrenidae: Genera *Naegleria*, *Didascalus*, and *Schizopyrenus* - first two being flagellate amoebae.

Family Hartmannellidae: Genera *Hartmanella* (*Acanthamoeba*)

3 How to prepare materials for studying mitosis - Feulgen stain

C Morphological Characteristics of Small, Free-Living Amoebae

1 Morphology of Trophozoites - Ectoplasm and endoplasm usually distinct, nucleus with large nucleolus.

2 Morphology of cysts - Single or double wall with or without pores

D Cultural Characteristics of Small, Free-Living Amoebae

1 How to cultivate these amoebae - plates with bacteria; cell cultures, axenic culture.

2 Growth characteristics on plate, cell, and axenic culture

3 Complex growth requirements for most of these amoebae

E Resistance of Amoebic Cysts to Physical and Chemical Agents

II FREE-LIVING NEMATODES

A Classification of Those Commonly Found in Water Supplies

1 Phasmidia (Secerneutes): Genera *Rhabditis*, *Diplogaster*, *Diplogasteroides*, *Cheilobus*, *Panagrolaimus*

2 Aphasmidia (Adenophoro): Genera *Monhystera*, *Aphelenchus*, *Turbatrix* (vinegar eel), *Dorylaimus*, and *Rhabdolaimus*

B Morphological Features

1 Phasmids: papilla on tail of males, mouth adapted to feed on bacteria, few exceptions.

2 Aphasmids: no papilla on male tail; glandular cells in male.

C Life Cycle

  1 Methods of mating

  2 Stages of development

  3 Parthenogenesis

D Cultivation

  1 Bacteria-fed cultures

  2 Axenic cultures

E Occurrence in Water Supplies

  1 Relationship between their appearance in finished water and that in raw water.

  2 Frequency of occurrence in different types of raw water and sources.

  3 Survival of human enteric pathogenic bacteria and viruses in nematodes.

  4 Protection of human enteric pathogenic bacteria and viruses in nematode-carriers.

F Control

  1 Chlorination of sewage effluent

  2 Flocculation and sedimentation of water

  3 Chlorination of water

  4 Other methods of destruction

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Nematodes

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This outline was prepared by Shih L. Chang, M.D., Chief, Etiology, Criteria Development Branch, Water Supply Research Laboratory, NERC, EPA, Cincinnati, OH 45268.

Descriptors: Amoebae, Nematodes

SUGGESTED CLASSIFICATION OF SMALL AMOEBAE

Subphylum: Sarcodina Hertwig and Lesser

Class: Rhizopoda von Siebold

Subclass: Amoebaea Butschli

Order: Amoebida Calkins and Ehrenberg

Superfamily: Amoebaceae - free-living
(Endamoebaceae - parasitic in animals)

Family: Schizopyrenidae - active *limax* form common; transcient flagellates present or absent; nucleonus-origin of polar masses; polar caps and interzonal bodies present or absent

Genus: *Schizopyrenus* - no transcient flagellates; single-walled cysts; no polar caps or interzonal bodies in mitosis

Species: *S. erythaenusa* - reddish orange pigment formed in agar cultures with gram-negative bacillary bacteria

S. russelli - no pigment produced in agar cultures

Genus: *Didascalus* - morphology and cytology similar to *Schizopyrenus* but small numbers of transcient flagellates formed at times

Species: *D. thorntoni* - only species described by Singh (1952)

Genus: *Naegleria* Alexeieff - double-walled cysts; transcient flagellates formed readily; polar caps and interzonal bodies present in mitosis

Species: *N. gruberi* (Schardinger) - only species established; Singh (1952) disclaimed the *N. soli* he described in 1951

Family: Hartmannellidae - no transcient flagellate formed; motility sluggish; no *limax* form; nucleolus disappearing, probably forming spindle in mitosis; no polar caps or masses, aster and centrosome not known

Genus: *Hartmannella* - ectoplasm clear or less granular than endoplasm; single-walled cysts; single vacuole

Species: *H. glebae* - clear ectoplasm
H. agricola - ectoplasm less granular than endoplasm

Genus: *Acanthamoeba* - filamentous processes from ecto- or endoplasm; growing axenically in fluid bacteriological media

Species: A. rhysodes

Genus: Singhella - double-walled cysts; ecto- and endoplasm indistinguishable; many vacuoles

Species: Singhella leptocnemus

ANIMAL PLANKTON

I INTRODUCTION

A Planktonic animals or zooplankton are found in nearly every major group of animals.

1 Truly planktonic species (euplankton) spend all or most of their active life cycle suspended in the water. Three groups are predominantly involved in fresh water; the protozoa, rotifers, and microcrustacea.

2 Transient planktonic phases such as floating eggs and cysts, and larval stages occur in many other groups.

B Many forms are strictly seasonal in occurrence.

C Certain rare forms occur in great numbers at unpredictable intervals.

D Techniques of collection, preservation, and identification strongly influence the species reported.

E In oceanographic work, the zooplankton is considered to include many relatively large animals such as siphonophores, ctenophores, hepteropods, pteropods, arrowworms, and euphausid shrimp.

F The plant-like or phytoplankton on the other hand are essentially similar in all waters, and are the nutritional foundation for the animal community.

II PHYLUM PROTOZOA

A The three typically free living classes, Mastigophora, Rhizopoda, and Ciliophora, all have planktonic representatives. As a group however, the majority of the phylum is benthic or bottom-loving. Nearly any of the benthic forms may occasionally be washed up into the overlying waters and thus be collected along with the euplankton.

B Class mastigophora, the nonpigmented zooflagellates.

These have frequently been confused with the phytomastigina or plant-like flagellates. The distinction is made here on the basis of the presence or absence of chlorophyll as suggested by Palmer and Ingram 1955.

(Note Figure: Nonpigmented, Non-Oxygen Producing Protozoan Flagellates in the outline Oxygen Relationships.)

1 Commonly encountered genera

Bodo

Peranema

2 Frequently associated with eutrophic conditions

C Class Rhizopoda - amoeboid protozoans

1 Forms commonly encountered as plankton:

Chaos (*Amoeba*)

Arcella *Centropyxis*

Difflugia Heliozoa

Euglypha

2 Cysts of some types may be encountered in water plants or distribution systems; rarely in plankton of open lakes or reservoirs.

D Class Ciliophora

1 Certain "attached" forms often found floating freely with plankton:

Vorticella

Carchesium

2 Naked, unattached ciliates. *Halteria* one of commonest in this group. Various heavily ciliated forms (holotrichs) may occur from time to time such as *Colpidium*, *Enchelys*, etc.

3 Ciliates protected by a shell or test (testaceous) are most often recorded from preserved samples. Particularly common in the experience of the National Water Quality Sampling Network are:

Codonella fluviatile

Codonella cratera

Tintinnidium (usually with organic matter)

Tintinnopsis

III PHYLUM ROTIFERA

A Some forms such as Anuraea cochlearis and Asplanchna pridonta tend to be present at all times of the year. Others such as Notholca striata, N. longispina and Polyarthra platyptera are reported to be essentially winter forms.

B Species in approximate order of descending frequency currently recorded by National Water Quality Sampling Network are:

Keratella cochlearis

Polyarthra vulgaris

Synchaeta pectinata

Brachionus quadridentata

Trichocerca longiseta

Rotaria sp.

Filinia longiseta

Kellicottia longispina

Pompholyx sp.

C Benthic species almost without number may be collected with the plankton from time to time.

IV PHYLUM ARTHROPODA

A Class Crustacea

1 The Class Crustacea includes the larger common freshwater euplankton. They are also the greatest planktonic consumers of basic nutrients in the form of phytoplankton, and are themselves the greatest planktonic contribution to the food of fishes. Most of them are herbivorous. Two groups, the cladocera and the copepods are most conspicuous.

2 Cladocera (Subclass Branchiopoda, Order Cladocera) or Water Fleas

a Life History

1) During most of the year, eggs which will develop without fertilization (parthenogenetic) are deposited by the female in a dorsal brood chamber. Here they hatch into minature adults which escape and swim away.

2) As unfavorable conditions develop, males appear, and thick-walled sexual eggs are enclosed in egg cases called ephippia which can often endure freezing and drying.

3) Sexual reproduction may occur at different seasons in different species.

4) Individuals of a great range of sizes, and even ephippia, are thus encountered in the plankton, but there is no "larval" form.

b Seasonal variation - Considerable variation may occur between winter and summer forms of the same species in some cases. Similar variation also occurs between arctic and tropical situations.

c Forms commonly encountered as open water plankton include:

Bosmina longirostris and others

Daphnia galeata and others

Other less common genera are:

Diaphanosoma, Chydorus, Sida, Acroperus, Ceriodaphnia, Bythotrephes, and the carnivorous Leptodora and Polyphemus.

d Heavy blooms of Cladocerans may build up in eutrophic waters.

3 The copepods (order Copepoda) are the perennial microcrustacea of open waters, both fresh and marine. They are the most ubiquitous of animal plankton.

a Cyclops is the genus most often found by the National Water Quality Sampling Network activities. Eucyclops, Paracyclops, Diaptomus, Canthocamptus, Epischura, and Limnocalanus are other forms reported to be planktonic.

b Copepods hatch into a minute characteristic larvae called a nauplius which differs considerably from the adults. After five or six moults, the copepodid stage is reached, and after six more moults, the adult. These larval stages are often encountered and are difficult to identify.

B Class Insecta

1 Only a few kinds of insect that can be ranked as a truly planktonic. Mainly the phantom midge fly Chaborus.

2 The larva of this insect has hydrostatic organs that enable it to remain suspended in the water, or make vertical ascents in the water column.

3 It is usually benthic during the daytime, but ascends to the surface at night.

V OCCASIONAL PLANKTERS

A While the protozoa, rotifers, and microcrustacea make up the bulk of the plankton, there are many other groups as mentioned above that may also occur. Locally or periodically these may be of major importance. Examples are given below.

B Phylum Coelenterata

1 Polyps of the genus Hydra may become detached and float about hanging from the surface film or floating detritus.

2 The freshwater medusa Craspedacusta occasionally appears in lakes or reservoirs in great numbers.

C Phylum Platyhelminthes

1 Minute Turbellaria (relatives of the well known Planaria) are sometimes taken with the plankton in eutrophic conditions. They are often confused with ciliate protozoa.

2 Cercaria larvae of Trematodes (flukes) parasitic on certain wild animals, frequently appear in great numbers. When trapped in the droplets of water on a swimmer's skin, they attempt to bore in. Man not being their natural host, they fail. The resultant irritation is called "swimmer's itch". Some can be identified, but many unidentifiable species may be found.

3 In many areas of the world, cercaria larvae of human parasites such as the blood fluke Schistosoma japonicum may live as plankton, and penetrate the human skin directly on contact.

D Phylum Nemathelminthes

1 Nematodes (or nemas) or roundworms approach the bacteria and the blue-green algae in ubiquity. They are found in the soil and in the water, and in the air as dust. In both marine and fresh waters and from the Arctic to the tropics.

2 Although the majority are free living, some occur as parasites of plants, animals, and man, and some of these parasites are among our most serious.

3 With this distribution, it is obvious that they will occasionally be encountered as plankton. A more complete discussion of nematodes and their public health implications in water supplies will be found elsewhere (Chang, S. L.).

E Additional crustacean groups sporadically met with in the plankton include the following:

1 Order Anostraca or fairy shrimps (formerly included with the two following orders in the Euphyllopoda) primarily planktonic in nature.

a Extremely local and sporadic, but when present, may be dominating.

b Artemia, the brine shrimp, can tolerate very high salinities.

c Very widely distributed, poorly understood.

2 Order Notostraca, the tadpole shrimps. Essentially southern and western in distribution.

3 Order Conchostraca, the clam shrimps. Widely distributed, sporadic in occurrence. Many local species.

4 Subclass Ostracoda, the seed shrimps. Up to 3 in. in length. Essentially benthic but certain species of Cypris, and Notodromas may occur in considerable numbers as plankton at certain times of the year.

5 Certain members of the large subclass Malacostraca are limnetic, and thus, planktonic to some extent.

a The scuds, (order Amphipoda) are essentially benthic but are sometimes collected in plankton samples around weed beds or near shore. Nektoplanktonic forms include Pontoporeia and some species of Gammarus.

b The mysid, or opossum shrimps are represented among the plankton by Mysis relicta, which occurs in the deeper waters, large lakes as far north as the Arctic Ocean.

F The Class Archnoidea, Order Hydracarina (or Acari) the mites. Frequent in plankton tows near shore although Unionicola crassipes has been reported to be virtually planktonic.

G The phylum Mollusca is but scantily represented in the freshwater plankton, in contrast to the marine situation. Glochidia (ciliated) larvae are occasionally collected, and snails now and then glide out on a quiet surface film and are taken in a plankton net. An exotic bivalve Corbicula has a planktonic veliger stage.

H Eggs and other reproductive structures of many forms including fish, insects, and rotifers may be found in plankton samples. Special reproductive structures such as the statoblasts of bryozoa and sponges, and the ephippia of cladocerans may also be included.

I Adventitious and Accidental Plankters

Many shallow water benthic organisms may become accidentally and temporarily incorporated into the plankton. Many of those in the preceding section might be listed here, in addition to such forms as certain free living nematodes, small oligochaetes, and tardigrades, Collembola and other surface film livers are also taken at times but should not be mistaken for plankton. Fragments and molt skins from a variety of arthropods are usually observed.

Pollen from terrestrial or aquatic plants is often unrecognized, or confused with one of the above. Leaf hairs from terrestrial plants are also confusing to the uninitiated, they are sometimes mistaken for fungi or other organisms (and vice versa).

In flowing waters, normally benthic (bottom living) organisms are often found drifting freely in the stream. This phenomenon may be constant or periodic. When included in plankton collections, they must be reported, but recognized for what they are.

Surface films are especially rich in micro "biological garbage" and these enrich the plankton.

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This outline was prepared by H. W. Jackson, former Chief Biologist, National Training Center, and revised by R. M. Sinclair, Aquatic Biologist, National Training Center MOTD, OWPO, USEPA, Cincinnati, Ohio 45268.

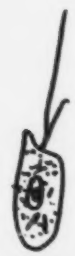
Descriptor: Zooplankton

Phylum PROTOZOA

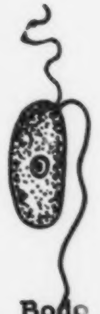
3/4

Free Living Representatives

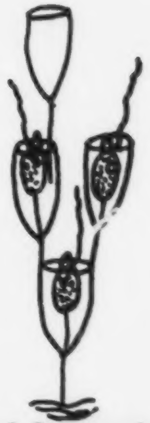
I. Flagellated Protozoa, Class Mastigophora



Anthophysis
Pollution tollerant.
6 µ

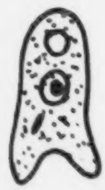


Bodo
Pollution tollerant
19 µ

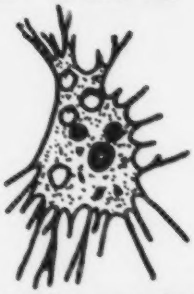


Colony of Poteriodendron
Pollution tollerant, 35 µ

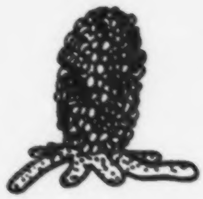
II. Ameboid Protozoa, Class Sarcodina



Dimastigamoeba
Pollution tollerant
10-50 µ

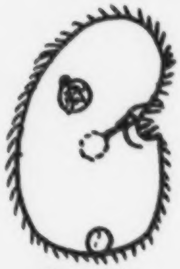


Nuclearia, reported
to be intollerant of
pollution, 45 µ.

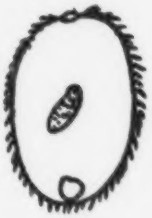


Difflugia
Pollution tollerant
60-500 µ

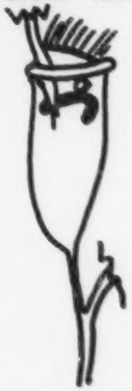
III. Ciliated Protozoa, Class Ciliophora



Colpoda
Pollution tollerant
20-120 µ



Holophrya, reported
to be intollerant of
pollution, 35 µ

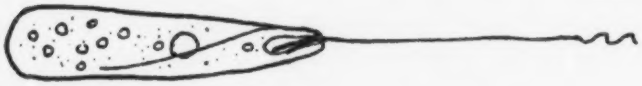


Epistylis, pollution
tollerant. Colonies often
macroscopic.

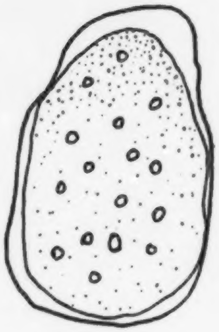
H.W. Jackson

18-6

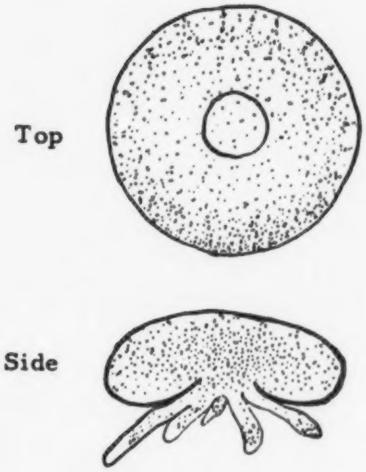
PLANKTONIC PROTOZOA



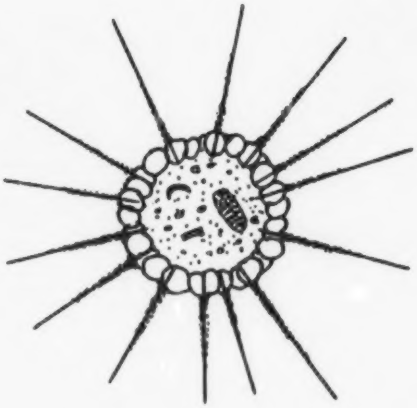
Peranema trichophorum



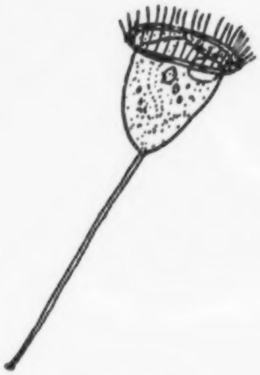
Chaos



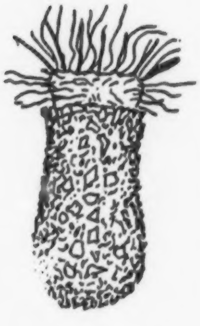
Arcella vulgaris



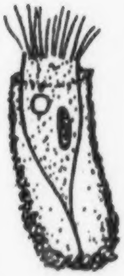
Actinosphaerium



Vorticella

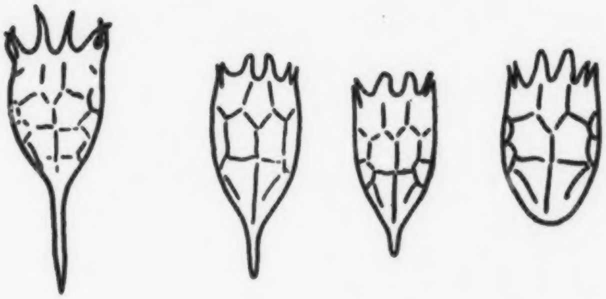


Codonella crater a

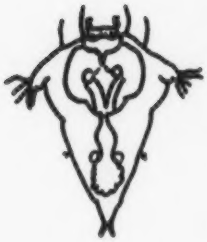


Tintinnidium fluviatile

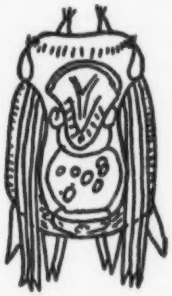
PLANKTONIC ROTIFERS



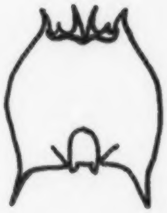
Various Forms of Keratella cochlearis



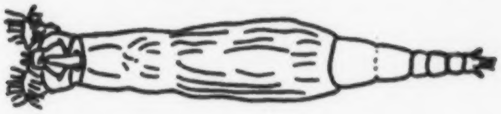
Synchaeta
pectinata



Polyarthra
vulgaris



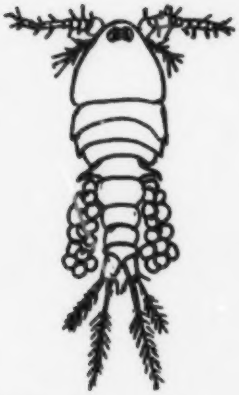
Brachionus
quadridentata



Rotaria sp

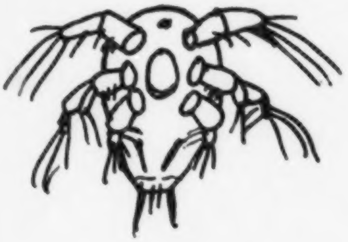
SOME PLANKTONIC CRUSTACEANS

CRUSTACEANS



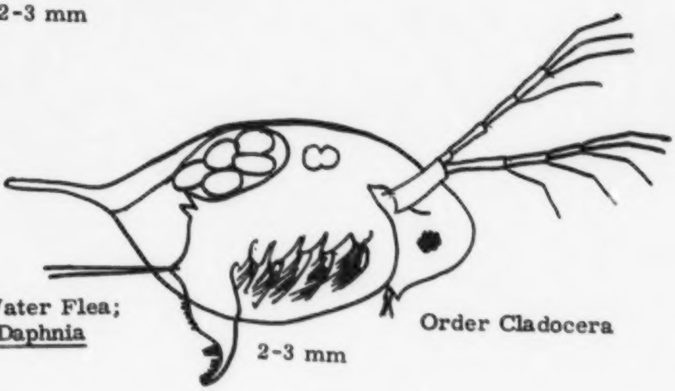
Copepod; Cyclops, Order Copepoda

2-3 mm



A Nauplius larva of a Copepod

1-5 mm

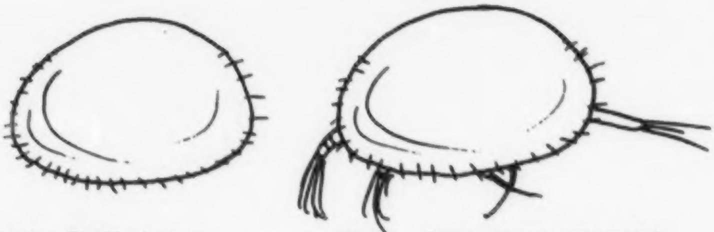


Water Flea; Daphnia

Order Cladocera

2-3 mm

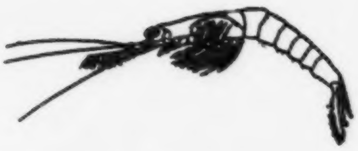
OSTRACODE



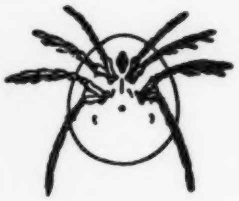
Left: Shell closed Right: Appendages extended

1-2 mm

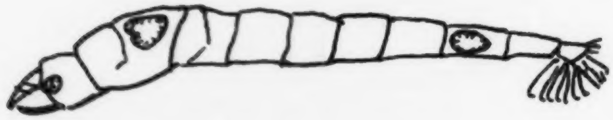
PLANKTONIC ARTHROPODA



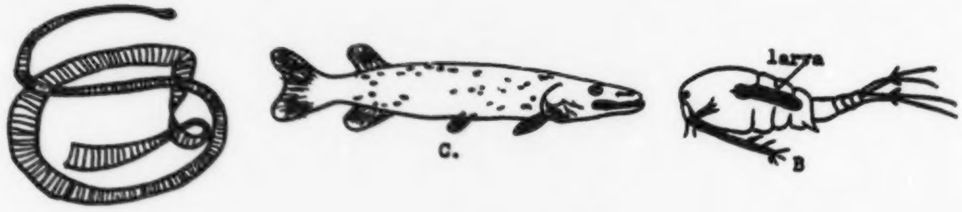
A mysid shrimp - crustacean



A water mite - arachnid



Chaoborus midge larva - Insect



Aspects in the life cycle of the human tapeworm Diphyllobothrium latum, class Cestoda. A. adult as in human intestine; B. procercoid larva in copepod; C. plerocercoid larva in flesh of pickerel (X-ray view).

H. W. Jackson

TECHNIQUES OF PLANKTON SAMPLING PROGRAMS

I INTRODUCTION

A A plan is necessary. "If you fail to plan, you are planning to fail." Overall objectives, integration with other survey units, statistical design.

B A planned program of plankton analysis should involve periodic sampling at weekly intervals or more often.

1 Most interference organisms are small, and hence have relatively short-life histories.

2 Populations of such organisms may fluctuate rapidly in response to changing water, weather, or seasons.

3 Seasonal growth patterns of plankton tend to repeat themselves from year to year, thus they are relatively predictable.

C A well-planned study or analysis of the growth pattern of plankton in one year will provide a basis for predicting conditions the following year.

1 Since the seasons and the years differ, the more records are accumulated, the more useful can they become.

2 As the time for an anticipated bloom of some trouble maker approaches, the frequency of analysis may be increased.

D Detection of a bloom in its early stages will facilitate more economical control.

II FIELD ASPECTS OF THE ANALYSIS PROGRAM

A Two general aspects of sampling are commonly recognized: quantitative and qualitative.

1 Qualitative examination tells what is present.

2 Quantitative tells how much.

3 Either approach is useful, a combination is best.

B Equipment of collecting samples in the field is varied.

1 A half-liter bottle will suffice for surface samples of phytoplankton if carefully taken. If zooplankton also are of interest, 2 or more liters should be collected. (See below).

2 Plankton nets concentrate the sample in the act of collecting, and capture certain larger forms which escape from the bottles. Only the more elaborate types are quantitative however.

3 A kemmerer-type sampler is suggested for depth samples.

4 Other methods such as the Clark-Bumpus sampler or the Juday plankton trap may be employed for special purposes.

C The location of sampling points is important

1 Both shallow and deep samples are suggested.

a "Shallow" samples should be taken at a depth of 6 inches to one foot.

b "Deep" samples should be taken at such intervals as the depth of the reservoir permits. There should be at least one open water sampling point.

c Each major bay or shoal area should have at least one sampling point.

d Additional sampling stations should be established on the basis of experience and resources.

e Samples may be composited if necessary to give an overall summary of conditions. Such summaries are not advised and should be interpreted with care.

A standardized vertical haul however, can be useful for routine comparisons.

III FACTORS WHICH INCLUENCE SAMPLING AND DATA COLLECTION

A Physical Features

1 Temperature

a Lakes are warmed in spring principally by the action of wind forcing the warmer water down into the cooler water against the forces of gravity.

b Thermal stratification

2 Turbidity

3 Color

4 Water movement

5 Light penetration

a A factor of turbidity, color, biological activity, and time of day

(1) Effective length of daylight diminishes with the depth of the lake.

6 Wind velocity and direction

7 Bottom materials

8 Size, shape, and slope of lake basin

B Chemical Factors

1 Alkalinity, pH, and dissolved minerals excluding nitrogen and phosphorus

2 Dissolved oxygen

a From photosynthesis in sunlight

b From contact of lake surface with the air

c Fluctuates seasonally because of temperature and biological activity, and diurnally because of biological activity.

3 Nutrients for biological growth - especially nitrogen and phosphorus

a A given body of water will produce a given quanity of aquatic life. Biological production is determined primarily by the nutrients in solution in the water, and an increase in basic fertility will increase biological activity.

b Basic suppliers of nutrients include tributary streams, precipitation from the atmosphere, and interchange with lake bottom sediments.

IV FIELD PRESERVATION OF SAMPLES

Provision should be made for the field stabilization of the sample until the laboratory examination can be made. Techniques and materials are listed below. No "ideal" preservative or technique has yet been developed, each has its virtues.

A Refrigeration or icing. The container containing the sample can be cooled, but under no circumstances should ice be dropped into the sample.

B Preservation by 3-5% formalin is time-tested and widely used. Formalin shrinks animal tissue, fades colors, and makes all forms brittle.

C Ultra-violet sterilization is useful in the laboratory to retard decomposition of plankton.

D Lugol's solution is often used.

E A special merthiolate preservative developed by the FWPCA Water Pollution Surveillance System which has proved very satisfactory and is described in reference No. 9.

V SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A The field sampling program should be carefully planned to evaluate all significant locations in the reservoir or stream, giving due consideration to the capacity of the laboratory.

B Adequate records and notes should be made of field conditions and associated with the laboratory analyses in a permanent file.

C Once a procedure for processing plankton is adopted, it should be used exclusively by all workers at the plant.

D Such a procedure should enable the water plant operator to prevent plankton troubles or at least to anticipate them and have corrective materials or equipment stockpiled.

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Portions of this outline were prepared by K. M. Mackenthun, Biologist, formerly with Technical Advisory and Investigation Activities, FWPCA, SEC, Cincinnati, Ohio.

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Descriptor: Plankton

PREPARATION AND ENUMERATION OF PLANKTON IN THE LABORATORY

I RECEPTION AND PREPARATION OF SAMPLES

A Preliminary sampling and analysis is an essential preliminary to the establishment of a permanent or semi-permanent program.

B Concentration or sedimentation of preserved samples may precede analysis.

1 Batch centrifuge

2 Continuous centrifuge

3 Sedimentation

C Unpreserved (living) samples should be analyzed at once or refrigerated for future analysis.

II PREPARATION OF MERTHIOLATE PRESERVATIVE

A The Water Pollution Surveillance System of the FWPCA has developed a modified merthiolate preservative. (Williams, 1967) Sufficient stock to make an approximately 3.5% solution in the bottle when filled is placed in the sample bottle in the laboratory. The bottle is then filled with water in the field and returned to the laboratory for analysis.

B Preparation of Merthiolate Preservative

1 Merthiolate is available from many chemical laboratory supply houses; one should specify the water soluble sodium salt.

2 Merthiolate stock: dissolve approximately 1.5 gram of sodium borate (borax and approximately 1 gram of merthiolate in 1 liter of distilled water.

The amount of sodium borate and merthiolate may be varied slightly to adjust to different waters, climates, and organic contents.

3 Prepare a saturated aqueous Lugol's solution as follows:

a Add 60 grams of potassium iodide (KI) and 40 grams of iodine crystals to 1 liter of distilled water.

4 Prepare the preservative solution by adding approximately 1.0 ml of the Lugol's solution to 1 liter of merthiolate stock.

III SAMPLE ANALYSIS

A Microscopic examination is most frequently employed in the laboratory to determine what plankton organisms are present and how many there are:

1 Optical equipment need not be elaborate but should include.

a Compound microscope with the following equipment:

1) Mechanical stage
2) Ocular: 10X, with Whipple type counting eyepiece or reticule
3) Objectives:
    approx. 10X(16mm)
    approx. 20X(8 mm)
    approx. 40X(4 mm)
    approx. 95X(1.8 mm)(optional)

A 40X objective with a working distance of 12.8 mm and an erect image may be obtained as special equipment. A water immersion objective (in addition to oil) might be considered for use with water mounts.

Binocular eyepieces are optional.

Stage micrometer (this may be borrowed, if necessary, as it is usually used only once, when the equipment is calibrated)

b Inverted microscopes offer certain advantages but are not widely available. The same is true of some of the newer optical systems such as phase contrast microscopy. These are often excellent but expensive for routine plant use.

2 Precision made counting chambers are required for quantitative work with liquid mounts.

a Sedgwick-Rafter cells (hereafter referred to as S-R cell) are used for routine counts of medium and larger forms.

b Extremely small forms or "nannoplankton" may be counted by use of the nannoplankton (or Palmer) cell, a Fisher-Littman cell, a hemacytometer, the Lackey drop method, or by use of an inverted microscope.

3 Previous to starting serious analytical work, the microscope should be calibrated as described elsewhere. Dimensions of the S-R cell should also be checked, especially the depth.

4 Automatic particle counters may be useful for coccoid organisms.

B Quantitative Plankton Counts

1 All quantitative counting techniques involve the filling of a standard cell of known dimensions with either straight sample or a concentrate or dilution thereof.

2 The organisms in a predetermined number of microscope fields or other known area are then observed, and by means of a suitable series of multiplier factors, projected to a number or quantity per ml gallon, etc.

3 Direct counting of the unconcentrated sample eliminates manipulation, saves time, and reduces error. If frequency of organisms is low, more area may need to be examined or concentration of the sample may be in order.

4 Conventional techniques employing concentration of the sample provide more organisms for observation, but because they involve more manipulations, introduce additional errors and take more time.

C Several methods of counting plankton are in general use.

1 The numerical or clump count is regarded as the simplest.

a Every organism observed must be enumerated. If it cannot be identified, assign a symbol or number and make a sketch of it on the back of the record sheet.

b Filaments, colonies and other associations of cells are counted as units, equal to single isolated cells. Their identity as indicated on the record sheet is the key to the significance of such a count.

2 Individual cell count. In this method, every cell of every colony or clump of organisms is counted, as well as each individual single-celled organism.

3 The areal standard unit method offers certain technical advantages, but also involves certain inherrent difficulties.

a An areal standard unit is 400 square microns. This is the area of one of the smallest subdivided squares in the center of the Shipple eyepiece at a magnification of 100X.

b In operation, the number of areal units of each species is recorded on the record sheet rather than the number of individuals. Average areas of the common species are

are sometimes printed on record sheets for a particular plant to obviate the necessity of estimating the area of each cell observed individually.

c The advantage of the method lies in the cognizance taken of the relative masses of the various species as indicated by the area presented to the viewer. These areas, however, are often very difficult to estimate.

4 The cubic standard unit method is a logical extension of the areal method, but has achieved less acceptance.

5 Separate field count

a In counting separate fields, the question always arises as to how to count organisms touching or crossed by the edge of the Whipple field. Some workers estimate the proportion of the organism lying inside the field as compared to that outside. Only those which are over half way inside are counted.

b Another system is to select two adjacent sides of the square for reference, such as the top and left boundaries. Organisms touching these lines in any degree, from outside or inside, are then counted, while organisms touching the opposite sides are ignored. It is important to adopt some such system and adhere to it consistently.

c It is suggested that if separate microscopic fields are examined, a standard number of ten be adopted. These should be evenly spaced in two rows about one-third of the distance down from the top and one-third of the distance up from the bottom of the S-R cell.

6 Multiple area count. This is an extension of the separate field count. A considerable increase in accuracy has recently been shown to accrue by emptying and refilling the S-R cell, after each group of fields are counted and making up to 5 additional such counts. This may not be practical with high counts.

7 The strip count. When a rectangular slide such as the S-R cell is used, a strip (or strips) the entire length (or known portion thereof) of the cell may be counted instead of separate isolated fields. Marking the bottom of the cell by evenly spaced cross lines as explained elsewhere greatly facilitates counting.

a When the count obtained is multiplied by the ratio of the width of the strip counted to the width of the cell, the product is the estimated number of organisms in the cell, or per ml.

b When the material in the cell is unconcentrated sample water, this count represents the condition of the water being evaluated without further calculation.

8 Survey count. A survey count is an examination of the entire area of a volumetric cell using a wide field low power microscope. The objective is to locate and record the larger forms, especially zooplankton such as copepods or large rotifers which may be present in size. Special large capacity cells are often employed for this purpose. For still larger marine forms, numerous special devices have been created.

9 Once a procedure for concentration and/or counting is adopted by a plant or other organization it should be used consistently from then on so that results from year to year can be compared.

D Differential or qualitative "counts" are essentially lists of the kinds of organisms found.

E Proportional or relative counts of special groups are often very useful. For example, diatoms. It is best to always count a standard numbers of cells.

F Plankton are sometimes measured by means other than microscopic counts.

  1 Settled volume of killed plankton in an Imhoff cone may be observed after a standard length of time. This will evaluate primarily only the larger forms.

  2 A gravimetric method employs drying at 60° C for 24 hours followed by ashing at 600° C for 30 minutes. This is particularly useful for chemical and radiochemical analysis.

  3 Chemical and physical evaluation of plankton populations employing various instrumental techniques are coming to be widely used. Both biomass and productivity rates can be measured. Such determinations probably achieve their greatest utility when coordinated with microscopic examination.

  4 The membrane (molecular) filter has a great potential, but a generally acceptable technique has yet to be perfected.

    a Bacteriological techniques for coliform determination are widely accepted.

    b Nematodes and larger organisms can readily be washed off of the membrane after filtration.

    c It is also being used to measure ultraplankton that pass treatment plant operations.

    d Membranes can be cleared and organisms deposited thereon observed directly, although accessory staining is desirable.

    e Difficulties include a predilection of extremely fine membranes to clog rapidly with silt or increase in plankton counts, and the difficulty of making observations on individual cells when the organisms are piled on top of each other. It is sometimes necessary to dilute a sample to obtain suitable distribution.

IV SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A The field sampling program should be carefully planned to evaluate all significant locations in the reservoir or stream, giving due consideration to the capacity of the laboratory.

B Adequate records and notes should be made of field conditions and associated with the laboratory analyses in a permanent file.

C Optical equipment in the laboratory should be calibrated.

D Once a procedure for processing plankton is adopted, it should be used exclusively by all workers at the plant.

E Such a procedure should enable the water plant operator to prevent plankton troubles or at least to anticipate them and have corrective materials or equipment stockpiled.

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Descriptor: Plankton

ATTACHED GROWTHS
(Periphyton or Aufwuchs)

I The community of attached microscopic plants and animals is frequently investigated during water quality studies. The attached growth community (periphyton) and suspended growth community (plankton) are the principal primary producers in waterways--they convert nutrients to organic living materials and store light originating energy through the processes of photosynthesis. In extensive deep waters, plankton is probably the predominant primary producer. In shallow lakes, ponds, and rivers, periphyton is the predominant primary producer. During the past two decades, investigators of microscopic organisms have increasingly placed emphasis on periphytic growths because of inherent advantages over the plankton when interpreting data from surveys on flowing waters:

A Blum (1956) "....workers are generally agreed that no distinctive association of phytoplankton is found in streams, although there is some evidence of this for individual zooplankters (animals) and for a few individual algae and bacteria. Plankton organisms are often introduced into the current from impoundments, backwater areas or stagnant arms of the stream.... Rivers whose plankton is not dominated by species from upstream lakes or ponds are likely to exhibit a majority of forms which have been derived from the stream bottom directly and which are thus merely facultative or opportunistic plankters. "

B "The transitory nature of stream plankton makes it nearly impossible to ascertain at which point upstream agents producing changes in the algal population were introduced, and whether the changes occurred at the sampling site or at some unknown point upstream. In contrast, bottom algae (periphyton) are true components of the stream biota. Their sessile-attached mode of life subjects them to the quality of water continuously flowing over them. By observing the longitudinal distribution of bottom algae within a stream, the sources of the agents producing the change can be traced (back-tracked)" (Keup, 1966).

II TERMINOLOGY

A Two terms are equally valid and commonly in use to describe the attached community of organisms. Periphyton literally means "around plants" such as the growths overgrowing pond-weeds; through usage this term means the attached film of growths that rely on substrates as a "place-to-grow" within a waterway. The components of this growth assemblage consists of plants, animals, bacteria, etc. Aufwuchs is an equally acceptable term [probably originally proposed by Seligo (1905)]. Aufwuchs is a German noun without equivalent english translation; it is essentially a collective term equivalent to the above American (Latin root) term - Periphyton. (For convenience, only, PERIPHYTON, with its liberal modern meaning will be used in this outline.)

B Other terms, some rarely encountered in the literature, that are essentially synonymous with periphyton or describe important and dominant components of the periphytic community are: Nereiden, Bewuchs, Laison, Belag, Besatz, attached, sessile, sessile-attached, sedentary, seeded-on, attached materials, slimes, slime-growths, and coatings.

The academic community occasionally employs terminology based on the nature of the substrates the periphyton grows on (Table 1).

TABLE 1

Periphyton Terminology Based on Substrate Occupied

Substrate	Adjective
various	epiholitic, nereiditic, sessile
plants	epiphytic
animals	epizooic
wood	epidendritic, epixylonic
rock	epilithic

[After Srameck-Husek (1946) and via Sladeckova (1962)] Most above listed latin-root adjectives are derivatives of nouns such as epihola, epiphyton, spizoa, etc.

III Periphyton, as with all other components of the environment, can be sampled qualitatively (what is present) and quantitatively (how much or many are present).

A Qualitative sampling can be performed by many methods and may extend from direct examination of the growths attached to a substrate to unique "cuttings" or scrapings. It may also be a portion of quantitative sampling.

B Quantitative sampling is difficult because it is nearly impossible to remove the entire community from a standardized or unit area of substrate.

1 Areas scraped cannot be determined precisely enough when the areas are amorphous plants, rocks or logs that serve as the principal periphyton substrates.

2 Collection of the entire community within a standard area usually destroys individual specimens thereby making identification difficult (careful scraping can provide sufficient intact individuals of the species present to make qualitative determinations); or the process of collection adds sufficient foreign materials (i.e. detritus, substrate, etc.) so that some commonly employed quantitative procedures are not applicable.

IV Artificial substrates are a technique designed to overcome the problems of direct sampling. They serve their purpose, but cannot be used without discretion. They are objects standardized as to surface area, texture, position, etc. that are placed in the waterway for pre-selected time periods during which periphytic growths accumulate. They are usually made of inert materials, glass being most common with plastics second in frequency. Over fifty various devices and methods of support or suspension of the substrates have been devised (Sladeckova, 1962) (Weber, 1966) (Thomas, 1968).

V ARTIFICIAL SUBSTRATE PLACEMENT

A Position or Orientation

1 Horizontal - Includes effects of settled materials.

2 Vertical - Eliminates many effects of settled materials.

B Depth (light) - A substrate placed in lighted waters may not reflect conditions in a waterway if much of the natural substrate (bottom) does not receive light or receives light at reduced intensity. (Both excessive light and a shortage of light can inhibit growths and influence the kinds of organisms present.)

C Current is Important

1 It can prevent the settling of smothering materials.

2 It flushes metabolic wastes away and introduces nutrients to the colony.

VI THE LENGTH OF TIME THE SUBSTRATE IS EXPOSED IS IMPORTANT.

A The growths need time to colonize and develop on the recently introduced substrate.

B Established growths may intermittently break-away from the substrate because of current or weight induced stresses, or "over-growth" may "choke" the attachment layers (nutrient, light, etc. restrictions) which then weaken or die allowing release of the mass.

C A minimum of about ten days is required to produce sufficient growths on an artificial substrate; exposures exceeding a longer time than 4-6 weeks may produce "erratic results" because of sloughing or the accumulation of senile growths in situations where the substrate is artificially protected from predation and other environmental stresses.

VII Determining the variety of growths present is presently only practical with microscopic examination. (A few micro-chemical procedures for differentiation show promise--but, are only in the early stages of development.)

VIII DETERMINING THE QUANTITY OF GROWTH(S)

A Direct enumeration of the growths while attached to the substrate can be used, but is restricted to the larger organisms because (1) the problem of maintaining material in an acceptable condition under the short working distances of the objective lenses on compound microscopes, and (2) transmitted light is not adequate because of either opaque substrates and/or the density of the colonial growths.

B Most frequently, periphyton is scraped from the substrate and then processed according to several available procedures, the selection being based on the need, and use of the data.

1 Aliquots of the sample may be counted using methods frequently employed in plankton analysis.

a Number of organisms

b Standardized units

c Volumetric units

d Others

2 Gravimetric

a Total dry weight of scrapings

b Ash-free dry weight (eliminates inorganic sediment)

c A comparison of total and ash-free dry weights

3 Volumetric, involving centrifugation of the scrapings to determine a packed biomass volume.

4 Nutrient analyses serve as indices of the biomass by measuring the quantity of nutrient incorporated.

a Carbon

1) Total organic carbon

2) Carbon equivalents (COD)

b Organic nitrogen

c Phosphorus - Has limitations because cells can store excess above immediate needs.

d Other

5 Chlorophyll and other bio-pigment extractions.

6 Carbon-14 uptake

7 Oxygen production, or respiratory oxygen demand

IX EXPRESSION OF RESULTS

A Qualitative

1 Forms found

2 Ratios of number per group found

3 Frequency distribution of varieties found

4 Autotrophic index (Weber)

5 Pigment diversity index (Odum)

B Quantitative

1 Areal basis--quantity per square inch, foot, centimeter, or meter. For example:

a 16 mgs/sq. inch

b 16,000 cells/sq. inch

2 Rate basis. For example:

a 2 mgs/day, of biomass accumulation

b 1 mg O_2/mg of growth/hour

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Descriptor: Periphyton

DETERMINATION OF PLANKTON PRODUCTIVITY

I INTRODUCTION

Primary production is the synthesis of organic matter from inorganic raw materials. The energy required for this process may come from light (photosynthesis), or from chemical sources (chemosynthesis). The primary synthesis of organic matter in lakes and streams is carried on by planktonic and benthic algae and bacteria, and aquatic macrophytes.

II PHOTOSYNTHESIS

The photosynthetic process involves the uptake of CO_2 and the release of O_2. The reactions are enzyme catalyzed and are affected by the following factors:

A Temperature

B Light Intensity

C Light Quality

D pH

E Nutrients

F Trace Elements

III MEASURING PRODUCTIVITY

Methods employed to measure plankton productivity are:

A Standing Crop

B Oxygen

C pH

D Carbon-14

IV STANDING CROP METHOD

The productivity of a body of water is indicated, in a general way, by the density of the plankton population. The standing crop of plankton is commonly measured by determining one or more of the following:

A Dry and Ash-free Weight of Seston

B Cell or Unit Counts

C Cell Volume

D Chlorophyll

E Particulate and Dissolved Carbohydrate

F Particulate and Dissolved Organic Carbon

Increases in the standing crop over a period of time may be used to determine productivity. However, this method provides only a rough approximation of the rate of primary production.

V OXYGEN METHOD

The use of dissolved oxygen to determine short-term rates of primary production was introduced by Gaardner and Gran (1927). Estimates of the amount of carbon fixed are based on the premise that one molecule of oxygen is given off for each atom of carbon assimilated.

$$CO_2 + H_2O \rightarrow CH_2O + O_2$$

A "Light" and "dark" bottles are filled with sample and resuspended at various depths for 4 - 24 hours.

B The concentration of dissolved oxygen is determined (using the Winkler Method) at the beginning and end of the incubation period. The values obtained are as follows:

1 Final "light" bottle O_2 - initial O_2 = net photosynthesis

2 Initial O_2 - Final "dark" bottle O_2 = respiration

3 Net photosynthesis + respiration = gross photosynthesis

This method has some serious disadvantages:

A The bottles provide an artificial substrate for the proliferation of bacteria which use up large amounts of O_2, resulting in erroneously high respiration and low net photosynthesis values.

B The lower limit of sensitivity of the Winkler Method is 0.02 mg O_2/liter. This is a serious handicap when working in oligotropic lakes and the open sea.

VI CARBON-14 METHOD

The use of carbon-14 for the measurement of the rate of carbon assimilation by phytoplankton was pioneered by E. Steemann Nielsen (1952). The method is simple and very sensitive.

A Carbon-14 labelled sodium bicarbonate (4 - 10μc/liter) is added to "light" and "dark" bottles, which are resuspended in the water for 4 - 24 hours.

B An aliquot of the sample is passed through a membrane filter (1.2 μ pore diameter), and the filters are treated with acid to remove any inorganic labelled carbon.

C The (beta) activity of the filter is determined with an end-window Geiger tube, or with gas flow or liquid scintillation techniques.

D The carbon fixed is determined as follows:

$$\text{carbon fixed} = \frac{\text{activity on filter}}{\text{total activity added}} \times \text{available } HCO_3^- \times \begin{array}{c}\text{correction for}\\ \text{isotope}\\ \text{discrimination}\end{array}$$

There are several important disadvantages in this method.

A Some of the labelled photosynthesis products will be broken down immediately by respiration, and the liberated carbon-14 reused in photosynthesis. Therefore, it is generally agreed that the method measures only net photosynthesis.

B It has been found that the algae rapidly excrete up to 50% of the photosynthate in the form of organic acids, carbohydrates, and amino acids. Since these labelled materials are not retained by the filter, they escape detection.

VII pH METHOD

The uptake of CO_2 by the algae during photosyntheses results in an increase in the pH of the surrounding medium. Periodic pH measurements are made of the body of water being studied, and the carbon uptake is determined using published nomographs.

Verduin (1952) used this method in a study of the productivity of Lake Erie. However, the method has not gained wide acceptance because it can be used only in waters with low alkalinity.

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Descriptors: Productivity, Plankton

ALGAL GROWTH POTENTIAL TEST

I INTRODUCTION

Dense growths of algae in surface waters are aesthetically undesirable, cause problems in water treatment, produce changes in the aquatic environment that are harmful to fish and other aquatic life, and are symptomatic of pollution. The density of phytoplankton populations is directly related to the concentration of nutrients. This relationship has been well documented, and is now embodied in the concept of trophic level or trophic status of surface waters. One or more of the following parameters are commonly used to describe the trophic status: (a) nutrient concentration - principally N and P, (b) algal count, (c) chlorophyll concentration, (d) primary productivity, (e) particulate organic matter, (f) oxygen depletion in the hypolimnion, and (g) phytoplankton species composition or indicator species (Rawson 1956; Davis 1964; Goldman & Carter 1965; Oglesby & Edmondson 1966; Fruh, Steward, Lee & Rohlich 1966).

II EUTROPHICATION

Three general trophic levels now recognized, here arranged in ascending order, are: oligotrophic (low), mesotrophic (intermediate), and eutrophic (high). The addition of nutrients to surface waters raises the trophic level and results in an increase in phytoplankton density and changes in the species composition. This process, commonly referred to as eutrophication, is greatly accelerated by the discharge of nutrient-laden domestic and industrial wastes (Hasler 1947), Edmondson & Anderson 1956).

III MEASUREMENTS OF TROPHIC LEVELS

Although chemical analyses provide information on the concentration of nutrients, their availability to the algae can be determined only by biological assay. Biological assays to determine the potential (algal) productivity of surface water were first used in the late twenties (Schreiber 1927) and early thirties (Strom 1933), but until recently had been used only infrequently (Potash 1956; Skulberg 1964, 1967; Shelef & Halperin 1970). In 1967, the Joint Industry-Government Task Force on Eutrophication took steps to develop a standardized algal growth potential (AGP) test. Using this test, one can:

A Evaluate the effectiveness of waste treatment processes in removing elements that support or stimulate the growth of algae.

B Determine at what point along the time scale of progressing eutrophication the water of a given lake or stream happens to lie (trophic status).

C Anticipate the effect on algal production of introducing extraneous nutrients.

D Determine the extent to which nutrient levels must be reduced in a body of water to effect an acceptable remedy.

IV BASIC STEPS OF ALGAL GROWTH POTENTIAL TEST

A A surface (test) water sample is collected and the indigenous microorganisms are removed by filtration (0.45 micron membrane filter at 15 inches of mercury) or ultracentrifugation.

B The surface water and standard medium (Table 1) are inoculated with 1000 cells/ml of Selenastrum capricornutum, or 50,000 cells/ml of Anabaena flos-aquae or Microcystis aeruginosa.

C The cultures are prepared in triplicate and incubated 7-10 days at 24°C, 200 fc (blue-greens) or 400 fc (Selenastrum) continuous illumination, with shaking at 100 oscillations/min (culturing may be by flask, chemostat, or in situ technique).

D Algal growth is measured daily by (1) cell counts, (2) determining the

TABLE 1

MAY, 1970 VERSION OF PAAP NUTRIENT BASAL MEDIUM

(This formula consists of 30% of the concentrations of the macroelements listed in the February, 1969, PAAP Booklet. The Na_2CO_3 was replaced by $NaHCO_3$, and the EDTA was reduced to 333 μg/l.)

MACROELEMENTS: (milligrams per liter)

Compound	Final Conc.	Element Furnished	Element Conc.
$NaNO_3$	25.500	N	4.200
K_2HPO_4	1.044	P K	0.186 0.469
$MgCl_2$	5.700	Mg	1.456
$MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$	14.700	Mg S	1.450 1.911
$CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$	4.410	Ca	1.202
$NaHCO_3$	15.000	Na	11.001

If the medium is to be filtered, add the following trace-element-iron-EDTA solution from a single combination stock solution after filtration. With no filtration, K_2HPO_4 should be added last to avoid iron precipitation. Stock solutions of individual salts may be made up in 1000 ×'s final conc. or less.

MICROELEMENTS: (micrograms per liter)

H_3BO_3	185.5	B	32.5
$MnCl_2$	264.3	Mn	115.4
$ZnCl_2$	32.7	Zn	15.7
$CoCl_2$	0.780	Co	0.354
$CuCl_2$	0.009	Cu	0.004
$Na_2MoO_4 \cdot 2H_2O$	7.26	Mo	2.88
$FeCl_3$	96.0	Fe	33.05
$Na_2EDTA \cdot 2H_2O$	300.0		

chlorophyll content, in vivo fluorescence, light scattering or optical density (600 nm) of the culture, (3) measuring the C-14 uptake, or (4) determining the dry weight of the algae at the end of the incubation period. Regardless of the parameter used to measure growth response, the result should always be expressed in terms of the final dry weight of the culture.

E The growth response of the alga in the test water is compared to its growth in the standard medium.

V PHASES OF THE TEST STILL UNDER STUDY INCLUDE:

A Composition of the standard growth medium.

B Effects of ventilation and shaking on the growth response of batch cultures.

C Techniques of measuring growth response.

D Techniques of removing indigenous microorganisms from test surface waters.

VI For copies of the Provisional Algal Assay Procedure and information on the availability of subcultures of the test organism, contact:

Dr. A. F. Bartsch, Chairman
JTF Research Program Group
Director, Pacific Northwest
Water Research Laboratory
Corvallis, Oregon 97330

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This outline has been prepared by Dr. C. I. Weber, Chief, Biological Methods Section, Analytical Quality Control Laboratory, NERC, EPA, Cincinnati, OH 45268.

Descriptors: Plankton, Productivity

ALGAE AND ACTINOMYCETES IN WATER SUPPLIES

I Water treatment always should include detection and control of microorganisms.

A Two types of microorganisms are involved:

1 Pathogenic types include such forms as the typhoid bacteria, the dysentery ameba, and the infectious hepatitis virus.

2 Interference types include taste and odor organisms, filter-clogging organisms, pipe-infesting organisms, and others.

B Water treatment practices are closely associated with these organisms.

1 For pathogens, practices include coliform tests, use of chlorine, and guarding the water supply against fecal pollution.

2 For interference organisms, practices include plankton enumeration, use of copper sulfate and the covering of reserviors.

3 Many of the other treatment practices have significant effects on the organisms.

C This discussion will be limited to the interference organisms.

II EXAMPLES OF PROBLEMS CAUSED BY INTERFERENCE ORGANISMS

A At Chicago, the alga Dinobryon reappears almost every year, generally in June and July in numbers sufficient to impart a prominent fishy odor to the water. In 1951, it required an estimated $70, 500 worth of activated carbon to control the odor of this organism for a period of two months.

B At Indianapolis, copepods were present in parts of the distribution system in numbers sufficient to be visible in the drinking water. The eggs of the copepods were found to pass through the filters and to hatch in the distribution system.

C At Oklahoma City, prominent earthy odors have appeared frequently. The organisms blamed for this trouble are the mold-like actinomycetes.

D At Peoria, white wigglers up to 3/8" long were reported in the tap water, during early March, 1956. These chironomid larvae had hatched in the city's open reservoir, requiring that the reservoir be drained, cleaned and treated with a larvicide.

E At Chicago, diatoms are a very important cause of short filter runs. The one diatom Tabellaria is considered to be more responsible than any other organism for this trouble.

F In Ontario, the alga Cladophora often grows in large numbers attached to rocks on the shoreline of lakes. When the alga is broken loose it collects near the shoreline and gives rise to very offensive odors.

G In a water supply impoundment in Utah the plankton algae frequently cause the pH of the water to increase to 8. 3 or higher, requiring that the water be treated with acid to obtain the desired pH of 8 or lower.

H In Texas a water supply from underground sources was stored in a large open settling basin. Oscillatoria and unicellular green algae developed in large numbers in the stored water, turning it green and producing a strong odor.

I Los Angeles has more than 25 open reservoirs of various sizes and ranging in elevation from almost sea level to over

7,000 feet. Many tons of copper sulfate are used every year in these reservoirs for rigid control of plankton, chiefly diatoms and occassionally blue-green algae. This treatment is carried out to improve the water quality including the reduction of tastes and odors.

III TYPES OF PROBLEMS CAUSED BY INTERFERENCE ORGANISMS

A Tastes and Odors

1 May be caused by algae, actinomycetes, crustacea, and anaerobic bacteria.

2 Common algal odors imparted to water are ones described as fish, earthy, musty, grassy, cucumber, geranium, nasturtium, and septic.

3 Common actinomycete odor is earthy.

4 Tastes produced in water by algae include sweet and bitter.

5 Other causative agents of tastes and odors may be industrial wastes, sludge, and compounds dissolved from soil and rock, and chemicals used in treatment.

B Filter Clogging

1 Both rapid and slow sand filters are affected.

2 Diatoms are the organisms most frequently involved but blue-green algae, filamentous green algae and other organisms as well as silt may cause it.

C Other Problems in the Treatment Plant

1 Algae may cause variation in the pH, hardness, color, and organic content of the water.

2 Amount of plankton organisms often influences the rate and effectiveness of coagulation.

3 Chlorine dosage may depend upon amount of plankton organisms present.

4 Growths of algae may reduce the flow through influent channels and screens.

5 Organisms may be responsible for increasing the quantity of sludge to be disposed of in sedimentation basins.

6 Microcrustacea "spot" paper in paper mill rolls.

D Infestation of Distribution Systems

1 Attached organisms reduce the rate of flow in the pipes.

2 Iron and sulfur bacteria may initiate or stimulate corrosion of pipes.

3 Organisms may appear as visible bodies in tap water.

4 Tastes and odors may result from presence of organisms.

5 Chlorine residual is difficult to maintain when organic matter is present.

6 Organisms could theoretically harbor and protect against chlorine certain pathogenic bacteria.

E Profuse Growths of Organisms in Raw Water Supplies

1 A limited and balanced growth of various organisms is generally an asset.

2 Extensive surface mats, blooms and marginal growths often cause troubles along the shoreline and eventually in the treatment plant.

3 Some fish kills may be caused by profuse growths of algae by reducing the DO during the night.

4 Certain massive growths of blue-green algae are deadly poisonous to animals.

IV ORGANISMS INVOLVED

A Animal forms include protozoa, rotifers, crustaceans, worms, bryozoans, fresh water sponges, water mites and larval stages of various insects.

B Plant forms include algae, actinomycetes and other bacteria, molds and larger aquatic green plants.

V IMPORTANCE OF BIOLOGICAL PROBLEMS

A The increased use of surface water supplies increases the problems caused by organisms. Biological problems are less common with ground water supplies.

B Standards of water quality requested by domestic and industrial patrons are rising.

C Procedures for detection, control and prevention of problems caused by organisms are improving and are receiving more extensive use.

VI A number of methods may be used to control the interference organisms or their products:

A Addition to water or an algicide or pesticide such as copper sulfate, chlorine dioxide or copper-chlorine-ammonia.

B Mechanical cleaning of distribution lines, settling basins, sand filters, screens, and reservoir walls.

C Modification of coagulation, filtration, chemical treatment, or location of intake.

D Use of absorbent, such as activated carbon, for taste and odor substances.

E Modification of Reservoir to Reduce the Opportunities for Massive Growths of Algae

1 By covering treated water reservoir to exclude sunlight

2 By increasing the depth of the water in reservoirs

3 By eliminating shallow marginal areas

4 By reducing the amount of fertilizing nutrients entering the reservoir.

VII It is generally more satisfactory to anticipate and prevent problems due to these organisms than it is to cope with them later.

A Routine biological tests are essential to detect the initial development or presence of interference organisms.

1 Control measures can then be used before problem becomes acute.

2 These tests should be applied to the raw treatment plant water supply and distribution system.

B In the Reservoir or Other Raw Water Supply

1 Routine plankton counts should be made of water samples from selected locations. Plankton counter should be aware of the particular organisms known to be most troublesome.

2 During the warmer months routine surveys of the reservoir, lake or stream should be made to record any visible growths of algae and other organisms.

3 Odor tests of water from several locations should be made to obtain advance notice of potential trouble at the treatment plant.

C In the Treatment Plant

1 Records of plankton counts and threshold odor between each step in treatment gives data on effectiveness of each procedure.

2 Coagulation and filtration can be adjusted to remove up to 95% or more of organisms in water.

3 Microscopic analysis of samples of filter material for organisms can supply data useful in modifying sand filtration and treatment of finished water.

D In the Distribution System With Its Finished Water

1 Open reservoirs require constant attention especially during summer.

2 Parts of the system farthest from the treatment plant or adjacent to dead ends require most frequent sampling for organisms and tastes and odors.

VIII SUMMARY

A Interference organisms cause problems in distribution systems, treatment plants, raw water supplies.

B Organisms involved include algae, actinomycetes, other bacteria, and minute aquatic animals.

C Control is by special chemicals, mechanical cleaning, adjustment of chemical or mechanical treatment and by modification of reservoirs, intakes, etc., for the raw water supply.

D Facilities for detection of problems in their early stages are required for most efficient and satisfactory control.

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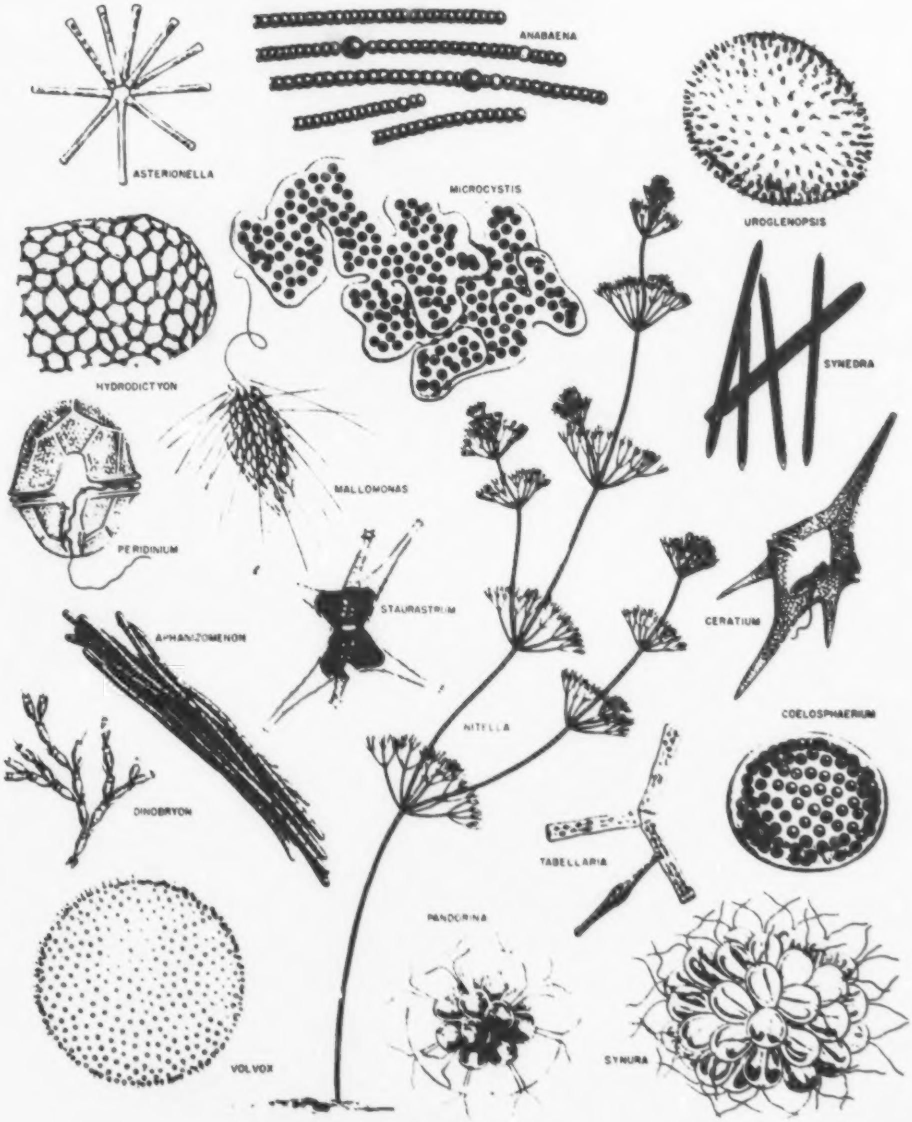
Descriptors: Algae, Water Supplies, Actinomycetes

ALGAE IMPORTANT IN WATER SUPPLIES

TASTE AND ODOR ALGAE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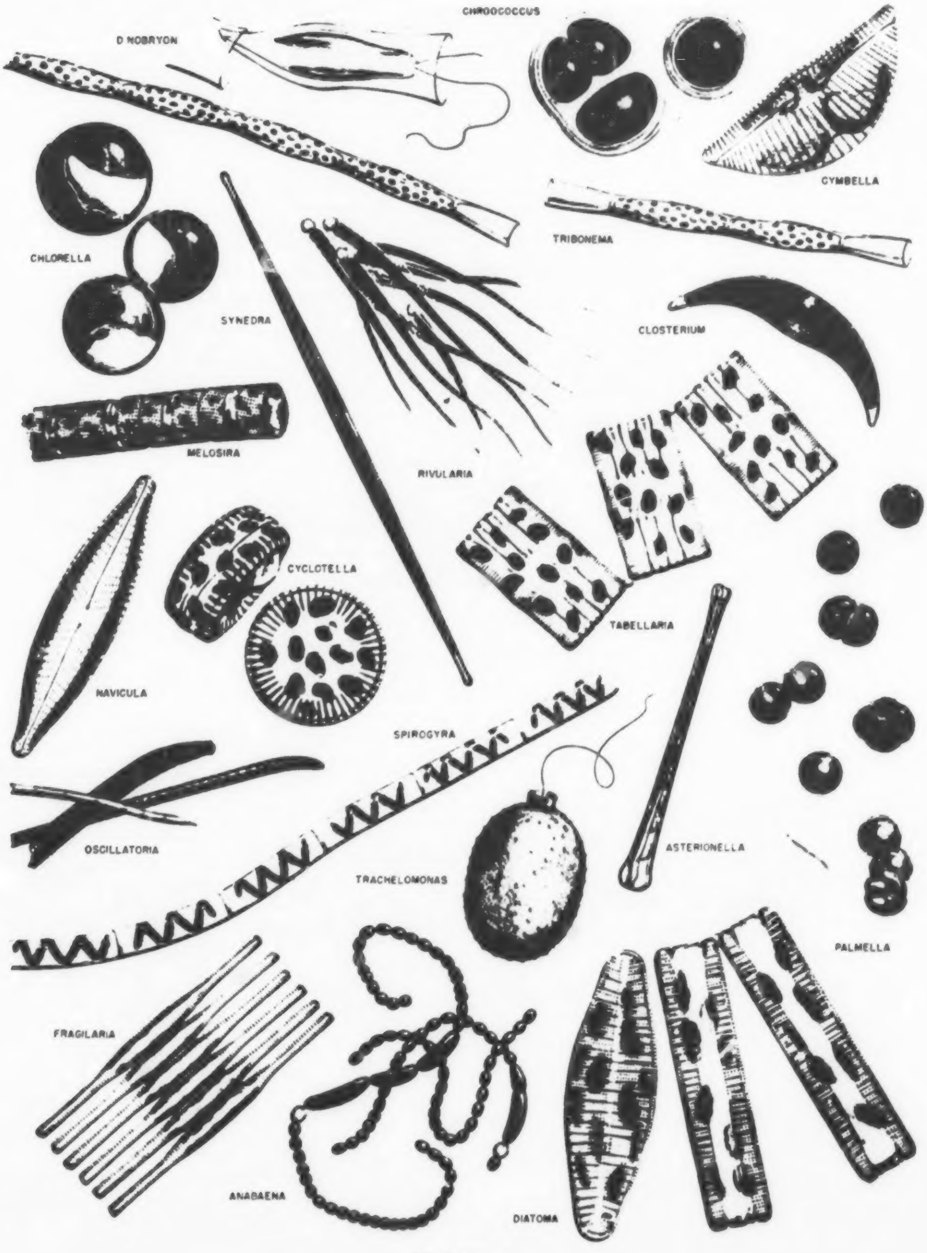
CERATIUM
APHANIZOMENON
NITELLA
COELOSPHAERIUM
DINOBRYON
TABELLARIA
PANDORINA
VOLVOX
SYNURA

PLATE I

FILTER CLOGGING ALGAE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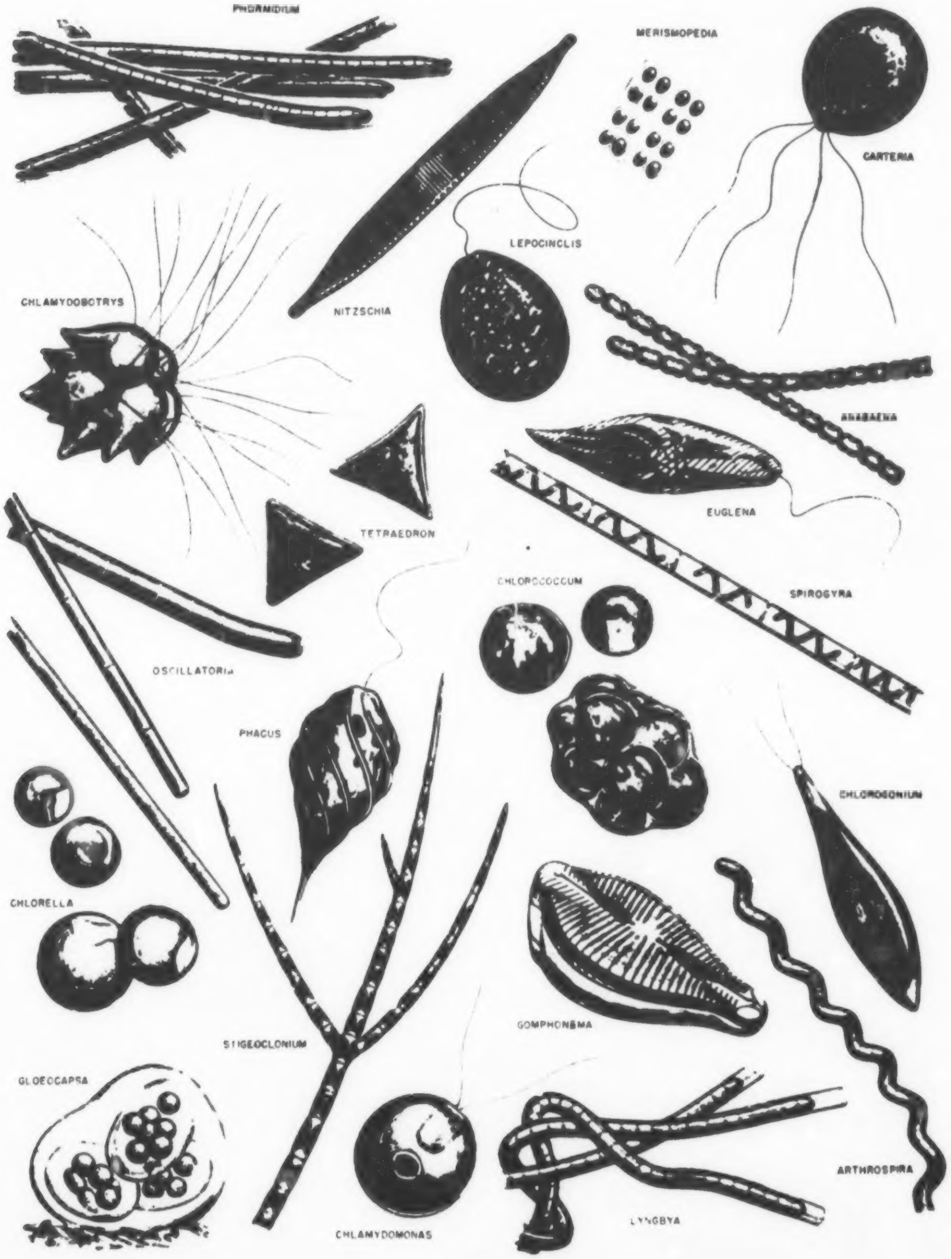
CYCLOTELLA
TABELLARIA
NAVICULA
SPIROGYRA
OSCILLATORIA
ASTERIONELLA
TRACHELOMONAS
PALMELLA
FRAGILARIA
ANABAENA
DIATOMA

PLATE 2

POLLUTED WATER ALGAE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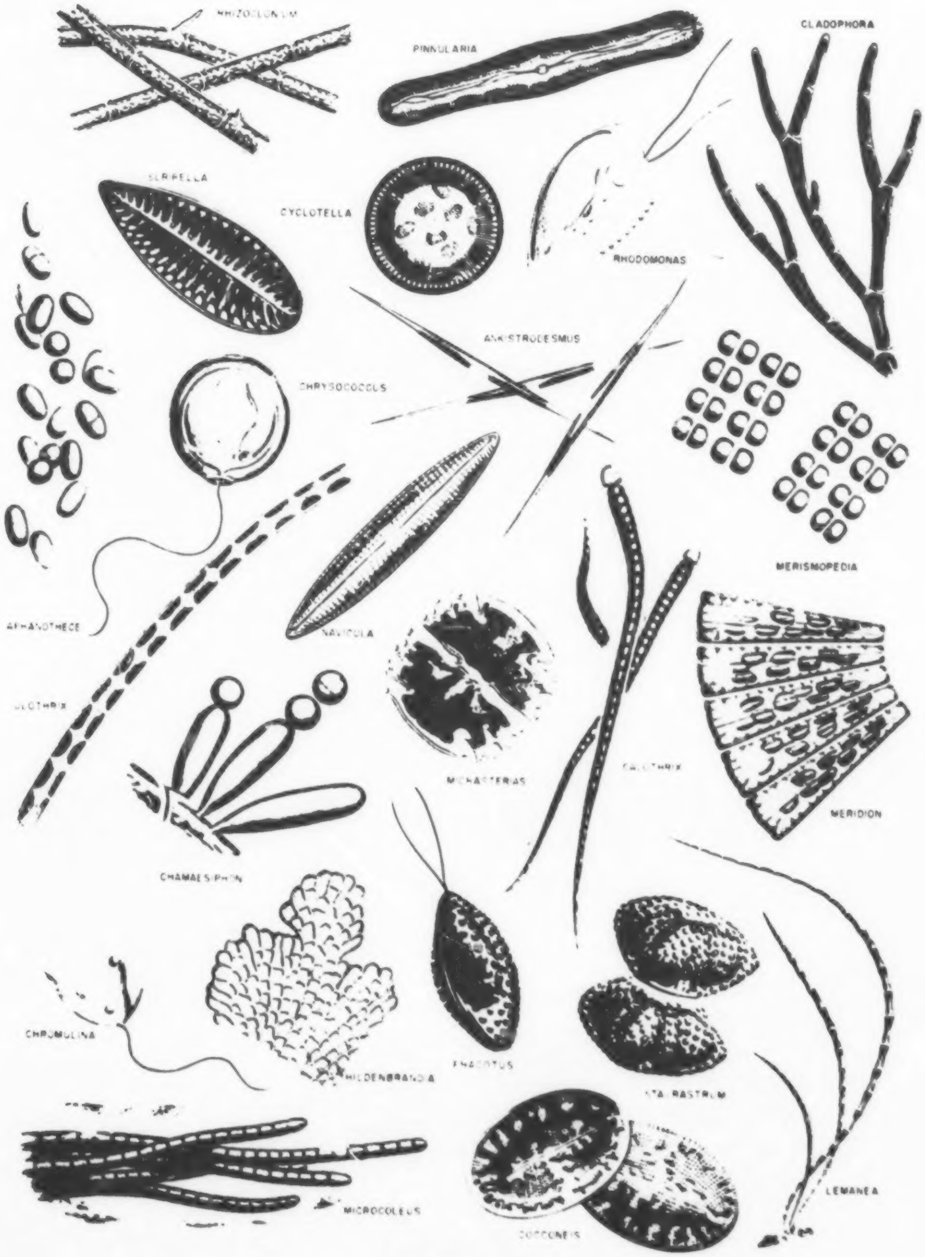
CHLOROCOCCUM
SPIROGYRA
OSCILLATORIA
PHACUS
CHLOROGONIUM
CHLORELLA
GOMPHONEMA
STIGEOCLONIUM
GLOEOCAPSA
ARTHROSPIRA
LYNGBYA
CHLAMYDOMONAS

PLATE 3

CLEAN WATER ALGAE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RHODOMONAS
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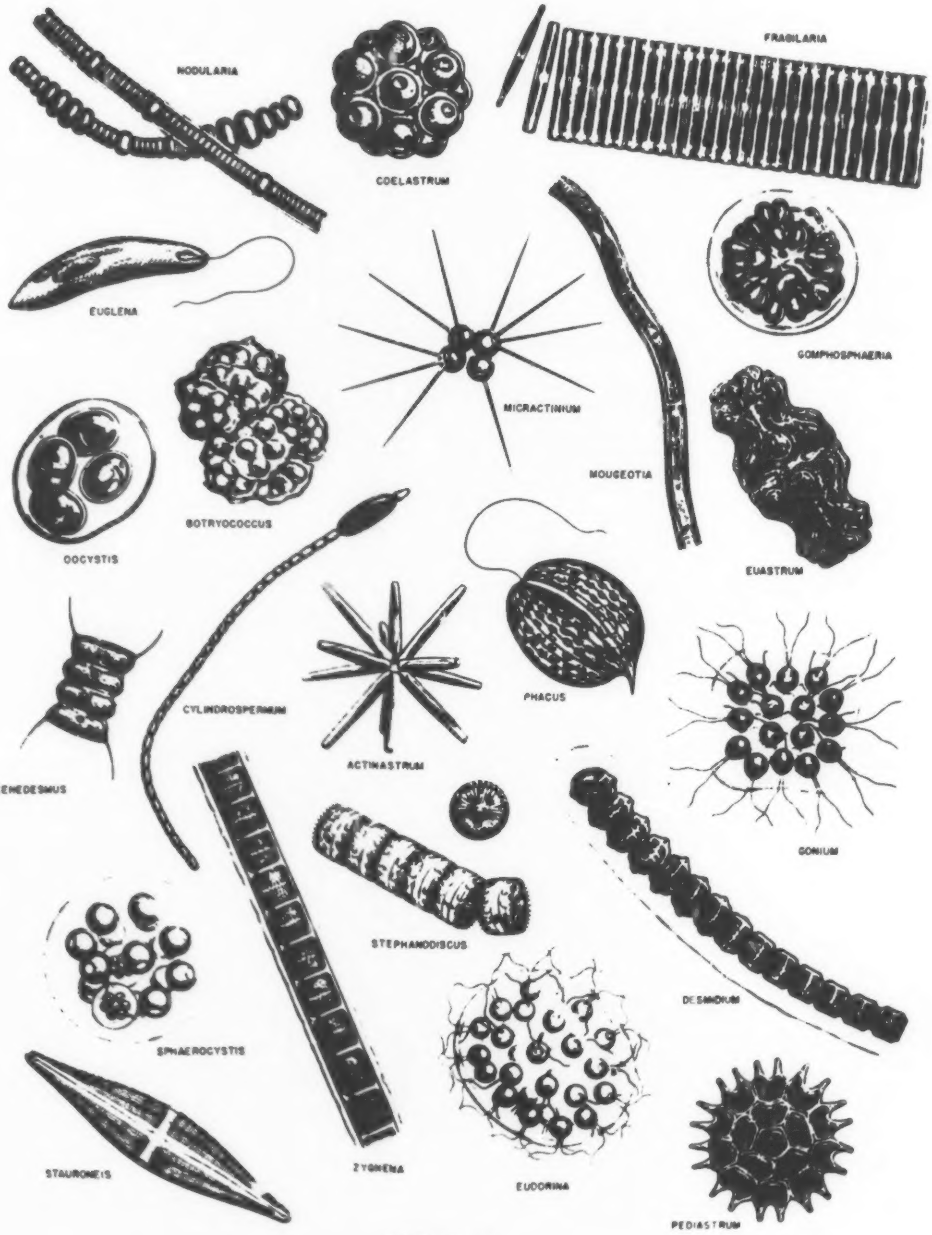
APHANOTHECE
NAVICULA
ULOTHRIX
MICRASTERIAS
CALOTHRIX
MERIDION
CHAMAESIPHON
CHROMULINA
HILDENBRANDIA
PHACOTUS
STAURASTRUM
LEMANEA
MICROCOLEUS
COCCONEIS

PLATE 4

SURFACE WATER ALGAE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EUASTRUM
CYLINDROSPERMUM
ACTINASTRUM
PHACUS
SCENEDESMUS
GONIUM
STEPHANODISCUS
DESMIDIUM
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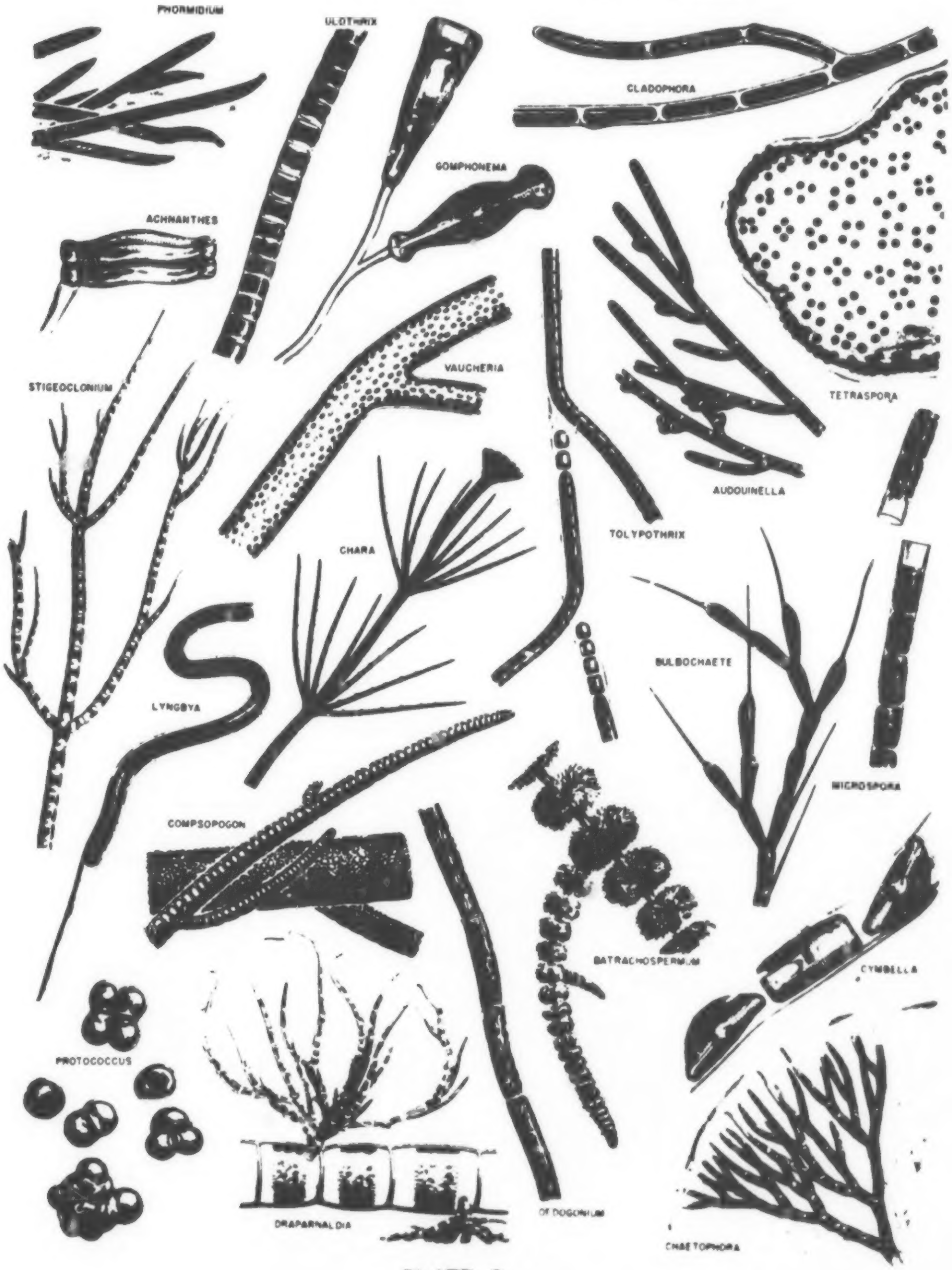
STAURONEIS
ZYGNEMA
EUDORINA
PEDIASTRUM

PLATE 5

ALGAE GROWING ON RESERVOIR WALLS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TETRASPORA
AUDOUINELLA
TOLYPOTHRIX
CHARA
BULBOCHAETE
LYNGBYA
MICROSPORA
COMPSOPOGON
BATRACHOSPERMUM
CYMBELLA
PROTOCOCCUS
DRAPARNALDIA
OEDOGONIUM
CHAETOPHORA

PLATE 6

ALGAE AS INDICATORS OF POLLUTION

I LIMITATIONS

A Algae are only one of a number of types of organisms present which could be considered.

B Forms recognized here as algae are comparatively simple, pigmented, aquatic organisms, including blue-greens, greens, diatoms and pigmented flagellates.

C Various pollutants react differently on algae. Organic pollutants such as household sewage will be dealt with here.

D No algae are intestinal organisms. They therefore are not indicators of pollution in the same way that coliform bacteria are.

II ALGAE AND ORGANIC POLLUTION

A Heavy pollution may tend to limit various kinds of algae to certain zones in the affected area.

B These zones are distinguished according to the degree of change which has occurred in the organic wastes. One set of names for these zones includes the Polysaprobic, alpha-mesosaprobic, beta-mesosaprobic and oligosaprobic.

C A few "pollution" algae are common in the first two zones. Many algae are common in and often limited to one or both of the last two zones.

D Some workers have listed separately those algae indicative of each of the four zones.

III REASONS FOR SELECTIVITY OF POLLUTANTS TO ALGAE

A Certain components of wastes are chemicals toxic to some algae but not to others.

B Wastes may have physical effects on certain algae. May cause plasmolysis, change in rate of absorption of nutrients, etc.

C Wastes may reduce available light, increase the water temperature, and cover up the areas for attachment to rocks.

D Wastes may prevent algal respiration at night by reducing the DO of water.

E Wastes may stimulate other organisms at the expense of certain algae.

F Products of waste decomposition may act as powerful growth stimulants for certain algae.

IV ALGAE AS INDICATORS OF POLLUTION

A Selection of list of "pollution" algae follows an evaluation of the kinds reported in published reports by numerous workers as relatively prominent in, or representative of, the polysaprobic and alpha-mesosaprobic zones in a stream polluted with sewage. It includes also other conditions or areas approximating these zones.

B A total list of more than 1000 kinds of algae has been compiled to date.

1 In order to tabulate the information, an arbitrary numerical value is allotted to each author's record of each pertinent alga.

2 The algae are then arranged in order of decreasing emphasis by the authors as a whole.

VI SOME GENERA AND SPECIES OF ALGAE HIGH ON THE LIST ARE AS FOLLOWS:

A Genera: Oscillatoria, Euglena, Navicula, Chlorella, Chlamydomonas, Nitzschia, Stigeoclonium, Phormidium, Scenedesmus, Ankistrodesmus, Phacus.

B Species: Euglena viridis, Nitzschia palea, Oscillatoria chlorina, Oscillatoria limosa, Oscillatoria tenuis Scenedesmus quadricauda, Stigeoclonium tenue, Synedra ulna and Pandorina morum.

VII SOME ALGAE REPRESENTATIVE OF CLEAN WATER ZONES IN STREAMS:

Chrysococcus rufescens, Cocconeis placentula, Entophysalis lemaniae, and Rhodomonas lacustris.

VIII RELIABILITY IN USE OF INDICATORS DEPENDS IN PART UPON ACCURATE IDENTIFICATION OF SPECIMENS

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This outline was prepared by C.M. Palmer, Aquatic Biologist, Cincinnati Water Research Laboratory, FWPCA.

Descriptors: Bioindicators, Algae

POLLUTED WATER ALGAE

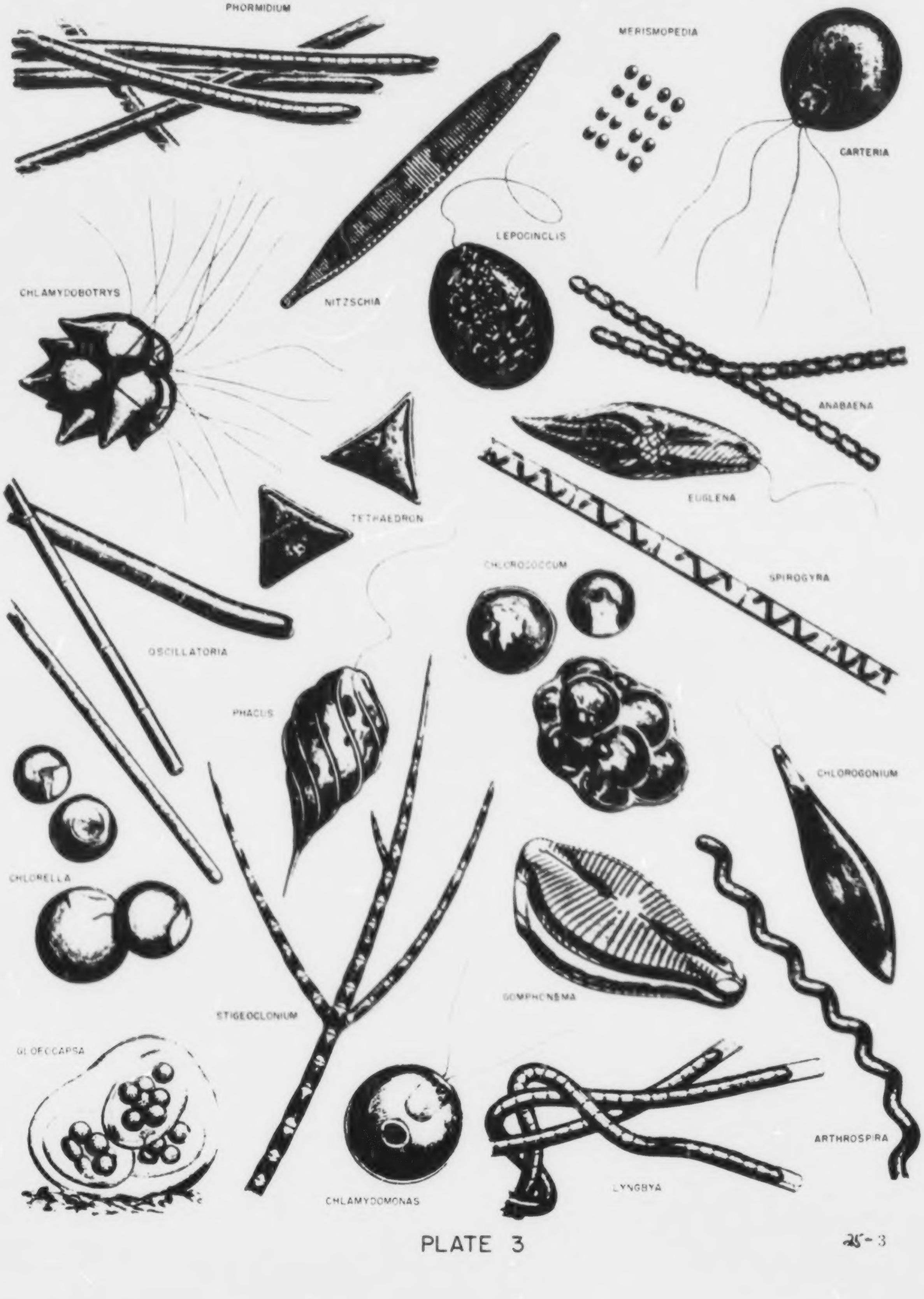
PHORMIDIUM
MERISMOPEDIA
CARTERIA
LEPOCINCLIS
CHLAMYDOBOTRYS
NITZSCHIA
ANABAENA
EUGLENA
TETRAEDRON
SPIROGYRA
CHLOROCOCCUM
OSCILLATORIA
PHACUS
CHLOROGONIUM
CHLORELLA
GOMPHONEMA
STIGEOCLONIUM
GLOEOCAPSA
ARTHROSPIRA
LYNGBYA
CHLAMYDOMONAS

PLATE 3

CLEAN WATER ALGAE

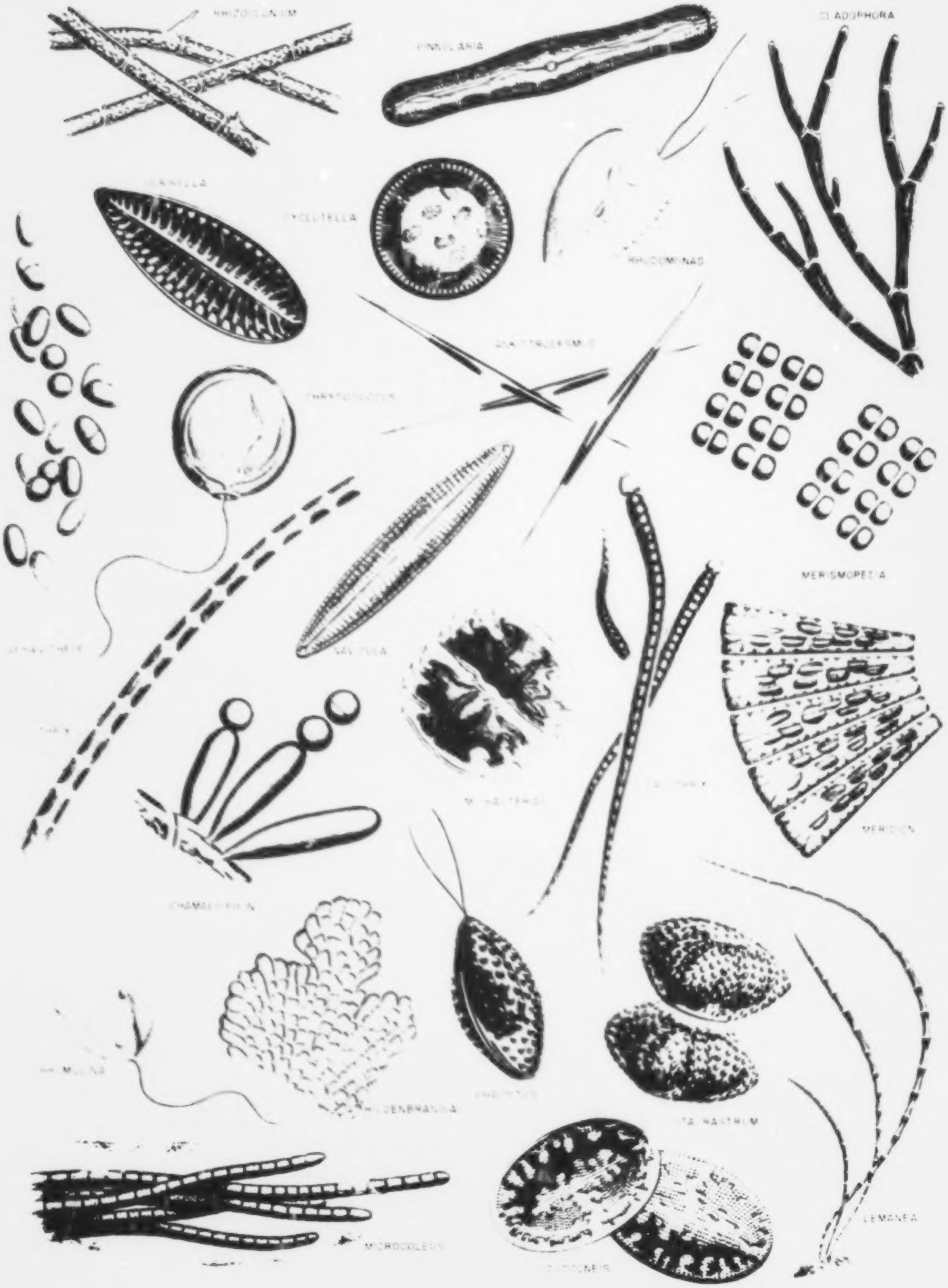
RHIZOCLONIUM
PINNULARIA
CLADOPHORA
SURIRELLA
CYCLOTELLA
RHODOMONAS
ANKISTRODESMUS
CHRYSOCOCCUS
MERISMOPEDIA
APHANOTHECE
NAVICULA
ULOTHRIX
MICRASTERIAS
CALOTHRIX
MERIDION
CHAMAESIPHON
CHROMULINA
HILDENBRANDIA
PHACOTUS
STAURASTRUM
LEMANEA
MICROCOLEUS
COCCONEIS

PLATE 4

ODOR PRODUCTION BY ALGAE AND OTHER ORGANISMS

I Most biological odors present in our water supplies are derived from algae, actinomycetes, and bacteria.

A The odor produced by algae and actinomycetes is generally the result of intracellular metabolic activity while the odor caused by bacteria usually results from extracellular enzymatic activity upon other organisms.

B The odors produced by actinomycetes are usually earthy while those produced by the algae are aromatic, grassy, and fishy.

II SOME SPECIES OF ALGAE CAUSING ODORS

A Diatoms

1 Asterionella (aromatic, fish)

2 Cyclotella (aromatic)

B Pigmented Flagellates

1 Synura (cucumber)

2 Dinobryon (fishy)

C Blue-green Algae

1 Anabaena (grassy, green corn, nasturtium)

2 Aphanizomenon (grassy, nasturtium)

D Green Algae

1 Chlorococcum (grassy)

III RESEARCH ON ALGAE ODORS

A Growing Algae for Odor Research

1 Obtaining unialgal bacteria-free cultures

a Plating out on semi-solid medium

b Single cell isolation

c Use of antibiotics

d Exposure to ultra-violet light

2 Determining nutritional requirements

a Inorganic salts

b Organic growth factors

B Methods of extracting odoriferous material from algal cultures

1 Distillation - steam and vacuum

2 Solvent extraction

3 Use of ion exchange resins

4 Freeze out methods

C Some Results of Research

1 Effect of culture age upon odor production

2 Effect of pH on odor intensity

3 Comparison of odor intensity in intact and broken cells

4 Groups of chemicals which may be responsible for causing algal odors

IV RESEARCH ON ACTINOMYCETE ODORS

A A number of actinomycetes were isolated from water and muds of rivers and lakes.

1 Large numbers were found to be present in muds, while there were relatively few in the water.

2 Most species belonged to the *Streptomyces* and a few to the *Micromonospora*.

B Extraction of Odoriferous Material

1 *Streptomyces griseoluteus* was used in this work.

  a Cultured in a defined medium

    (1) Cultures have threshhold odor of 20,000 to 50,000

2 Primary extraction was by distilling the culture at 100°C at atmospheric pressure.

  a Distillation of 10% of the culture volume resulted in 90% odor removal.

3 Odor was further concentrated by two methods

  a Ether extraction of the distilling off of the ether in vacuo.

    (1) Resulted in yellowish brown concentrate having a threshold odor of approximately 6 billion.

  b Absorption on activated carbon followed by elution of material with chloroform

C Effect of Activated Carbon in Removing the Earthy Odor

1 The odor is practically eliminated by 10 ppm carbon.

D Effect of Chlorine on Odor

1 Chlorine does not eliminate the odor but does not intensify the odor.

E Soil perfusion Tests

1 Conducted to determine the extent to which actinomycetes impart odors to a water environment.

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This outline was prepared by T. E. Maloney, Former Research Biologist, Aquatic Biology Activities, Research and Development, Cincinnati Water Research Laboratory, FWPCA.

Descriptor: Odor Producing Algae

PLANKTON IN OLIGOTROPHIC LAKES

I INTRODUCTION

The term *oligotrophic* was taken from the Greek words *oligos* -- small and *trophein* -- to nourish, *meaning poor in nutrients.* Lakes with low nutrient levels have low standing crops of plankton. The term is now commonly applied to any water which has a low productivity, regardless of the reason.

II PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF OLIGOTROPHIC LAKES*

A Very deep; high volume to surface ratio

B Thermal stratification common; volume of the hypolimnium large compared to the volume of the epilimnion

C Maximum surface temperature rarely greater than 15°C

D Low concentrations of dissolved minerals and organic matter.

1 Phosphorus, less than 1 microgram per liter

2 NO_3-Nitrogen, less than 200 micrograms per liter

E Dissolved oxygen near saturation from surface to bottom

F Water very transparent, Secchi disk readings of 20-40 meters are common

G Color dark blue, blue-green, or green

III PLANKTON

A Quantity

1 Standing crop very low

a Ash-free weight of plankton, less than 0.1 mg per liter (compared to 1 mg per liter or more in eutrophic lakes).

b Chlorophyll, 1 mg per M^3 or less

c Cells counts, less than 500 per ml

2 Zooplankton to phytoplankton volume ratio, 19:1.

B Quality

1 European biologists have found oligotrophic lakes to be dominated by Chlorophyta (usually desmids), chrysophyta (such as Dinobryon), and Diatomaceae (Cyclotella and Tabellaria). Eutrophic lakes are dominated by Synedea, Fragilaria, Asterionella, Melosira, blue-green algae, Ceratium, and Pediastrum. Nygaard devised several phytoplankton quotients based on these relationships

a Simple quotient

Number of species of

$$\frac{\text{Chlorococcales}}{\text{Desmidiaceae}} = \begin{array}{l}\text{if} < 1\text{, oligotrophic}\\ \text{if} > 1\text{, eutrophic}\end{array}$$

b Compound index

$$\frac{\text{Myxophyceae+Chlorococcales+Centrales+Eugleniaceae}}{\text{Desmidiaceae}}$$

if <1, oligotrophic

if 1-2.5, mesotrophic

if >2.5, eutrophic

c Diatom quotient

$$\frac{\text{Centrales}}{\text{Pennales}} = \begin{array}{l}\text{if 0-0.2, oligotrophic}\\ \text{if 0.2-3.0, eutrophic}\end{array}$$

2 Several lists of trophic indicators have been published:

Two are listed here

Teiling, Swedish Lakes

Oligotrophic	*Tabelleria flocculosa* *Dactylococcopsis ellipsoideus*
Mesotrophic	*Kirchneriella lunaris* *Tetraeadon* spp. *Pediastrum* spp. *Fragilaria crotonensis* *Attheya zachariasii* *Melosira granulata*
Eutrophic	*Aphanizomenon* spp. *Anabaena flos-aquae* *Anabaena circinalis*
Pronounced Eutrophy	*Microcystis aeruginosa* *Microcystis viridis*

Rawson, Canadian Lakes

Oligotrophic	*Asterionella formosa* *Melosira islandica** *Tabellaria fenestrata* *Tabellaria flocculosa* *Dinobryon divergens* *Fragilaria capucina* *Stephanodiscus niagarae* *Staurastrum* spp. *Melosira granulata*
Mesotrophic	*Fragilaria crotonensis* *Ceratium hirundinella* *Pediastrum boryanum* *Pediastrum duplex* *Coelosphaerium naegelianum* *Anabaena* spp. *Aphanizomenon flos-aquae* *Microcystis aeruginosa*
Eutrophic	*Microcystis flos-aquae*

Some discrepancies can be seen in the ranking of species in the lists. These may be the result of true differences in the composition of the plankton, or may be only apparent differences which resulted from different sampling methods. Many studies (e.g. those by Hilliard, Olive, and Rawson) have been based on netted samples, which may be highly biased because they contain little of the nannoplankton. Also, it is not uncommon to characterize populations on the basis of one or two samples collected during the summer months.

3 The dominant plankton in four oligotrophic North American lakes are listed below. The Great Slave Lake and Karluk Lake data are from netted samples taken during the summer, and monthly, respectively. The Lake Superior and Lake Tahoe data are from grab samples taken twice monthly, and quarterly, respectively.

The dominant diatoms are generally similar in the four lakes. Asterionella formosa and Fragilaria crotonensis are common to all. There are also some obvious differences. Melosira islandica, the dominant diatom in the Great Slave Lake and Lake Superior, is absent from Lake Tahoe and Karluk Lake. It was not found in Crater Lake by Sovereign (1958), in the Mountain lakes of Colorado by Olive (1955) or Brinley (1950), and does not occur in WPSS samples in streams west of the Great Lakes. Tabellaria is also absent from Lake Tahoe. It was reported in Colorado lakes by Olive, but was not abundant. Brinley makes no reference to it, and Sovereign indicated that it was rare in Crater Lake samples. It is apparent that the absence of these two diatoms from Lake Tahoe is not related to the lake.

Except for the absence of Keratella cochlearis from Lake Tahoe, the rotifer populations are very similar. Data on other segments of the zooplankton population are insufficient to permit comparison.

	Rawson, Great Slave Lake	USPHS, Lake Superior	Hilliard, Karluk Lake	WPSS, Lake Tahoe
Dominant Phytoplankton	Melosira islandica	Melosira islandica	Asterionella formosa	Fragilaria crotonensis
	Asterionella formosa	Tabellaria fenestrata	Tabellaria flocculosa	Synedra nana
	Dinobryon divergens	Cyclotella kutzingiana	Fragilaria crotonensis	Fragilaria construens
	Ceratium hirundinella	Melosira granulata	Cyclotella bodanica	Fragilaria pinnata
	Pediastrum boryanum	Melosira ambigua	Cymbella turgida	Nitzschia acicularis
	Tabellaria fenestrata	Asterionella formosa	Dictyosphaerium spp.	Asterionella formosa
	Cyclotella meneghiniana	Synedra nana	Sphaerocystis spp.	
	Fragilaria crotonensis	Scenedesmus spp.	Staurastrum spp.	
	Fragilaria capucina	Ankistrodesmus spp.		
	Synedra ulna	Dictyosphaerium spp.		
	Eunotia lunaris			
Dominant Zooplankton	Keratella cochlearis	Keratella cochlearis	Not reported	Kellicottia longispina
	Kellicottia longispina	Kellicottia longispina		Daphnia spp.
	Diaptomus tenuicaudatus			Diaptomus tyrelli
	Limnocalanus macrurus			Epischura nevadensis
	Senecella calanoides			
	Daphnia longispina			
	Bosmina obtusirostris			

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Descriptors: Oligotrophy, Plankton

BIOLOGICAL INTEGRITY OF STREAM COMMUNITIES

I BENTHOS ARE ORGANISMS GROWING ON OR ASSOCIATED PRINCIPALLY WITH THE BOTTOM OF WATERWAYS

Benthos is the noun.

Benthonic, benthal and benthic are adjectives.

II THE BENTHIC COMMUNITY

A Composed of a wide variety of life forms that are related because they occupy "common ground"--the waterways bottom substrates. Usually they are attached or have relatively weak powers of locomotion. These life forms are:

1 Bacteria

A wide variety of decomposers work on organic materials, breaking them down to elemental or simple compounds (heterotrophic). Other forms grow on basic nutrient compounds or form more complex chemical compounds (autotrophic).

2 Algae

Photosynthetic plants having no true roots, stems, and leaves. The basic producers of food that nurtures the bacterial and animal components of the community.

3 Flowering Aquatic Plants (Pondweeds)

The largest flora, composed of complex and differentiated tissues. May be emersed, floating, submersed according to habit.

4 Microfauna

Animals that pass through a U.S. Standard Series No. 30 sieve, but are retained on a No. 100 sieve. Examples are rotifers and microcrustaceans. Some forms have organs for attachment to substrates, while others burrow into soft materials or occupy the interstices between rocks, floral or faunal materials.

5 Meiofauna

Meiofauna occupy the interstitial zone (like between sand grains) in benthic and hyporheic habitats. They are intermediate in size between the microfauna (protozoa and rotifers) and the macrofauna (insects etc.). They pass a No. 30 sieve (0.5 mm approximately). In freshwater they include nematodes, copepods, tardigrades, naiad worms, and flat worms. They are usually ignored in freshwater studies, since they pass the standard sieve and/or sampling devices.

6 Macrofauna (macroinvertebrates)

Animals that are retained on a No. 30 mesh sieve (0.5 mm approximately). This group includes the insects, worms, molluscs, and occasionally fish. Fish are not normally considered as benthos, though there are bottom dwellers such as sculpins and darters.

B It is a self-contained community, though there is interchange with other communities. For example: Plankton settles to it, fish prey on it and lay their eggs there, terrestrial detritus leaves are added to it, and many aquatic insects migrate from it to the terrestrial environment for their mating cycles.

C It is a stationary water quality monitor. The low mobility of the biotic components requires that they "live with" the quality changes of the over-passing waters. Changes imposed in the long-lived components remain visible for extended periods, even after the cause has been eliminated. Only time will allow a cure for the community by drift, reproduction, and recruitment from the hyporheic zone.

D Between the benthic zone (substrate/water interface) and the underground water table is the hyporheic zone. There is considerable interchange from one zone to another.

III HISTORY OF BENTHIC OBSERVATIONS

A Ancient literature records the vermin associated with fouled waters.

B 500-year-old fishing literature refers to animal forms that are fish food and used as bait.

C The scientific literature associating biota to water pollution problems is over 100 years old (Mackenthun and Ingram, 1964).

D Early this century, applied biological investigations were initiated.

- 1 The entrance of state boards of health into water pollution control activities.
- 2 Creation of state conservation agencies.
- 3 Industrialization and urbanization.
- 4 Growth of limnological programs at universities.

E A decided increase in benthic studies occurred in the 1950 decade, and much of today's activities are strongly influenced by developmental work conducted during this period. Some of the reasons for this are:

- 1 Movement of the universities from "academic biology" to applied pollution programs.
- 2 Entrance of the federal government into enforcement aspects of water pollution control.
- 3 A rising economy and the development of federal grant systems.
- 4 Environmental Protection Programs are a current stimulus.

IV WHY THE BENTHOS?

A It is a natural monitor

B The community contains all of the components of an ecosystem.

- 1 Reducers
- 2 Producers
- 3 Consumers
  - a Detritivores and bacterial feeders
  - b Herbivores
  - c Predators

C Economy of Survey

- 1 Manpower
- 2 Time
- 3 Equipment

D Extensive Supporting Literature

E Advantages of the Macrobenthos

- 1 Relatively sessile
- 2 Life history length
- 3 Fish food organisms
- 4 Reliability of Sampling
- 5 Dollars/information
- 6 Predictability
- 7 Universality

F "For subtle chemical changes, unequivocal data, and observations suited to some statistical evaluation will be needed. This requirement favors the macrofauna as a parameter. Macroinvertebrates are easier to sample reproductively than other organisms, numerical estimates are possible and taxonomy needed for synoptic investigations is within the reach of a non-specialist."

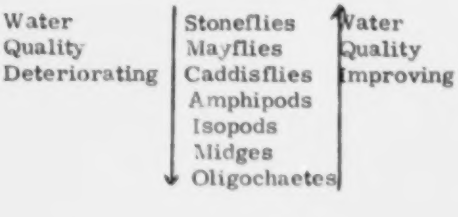
G "It is self-evident that for a multitude of non-identifiable though biologically active changes of chemical conditions in rivers, small organisms with high physiological differentiation are most responsive. Thus the small macroinvertebrates (e.g. insects) are doubtlessly the most sensitive organisms for demonstrating unspecified changes of water chemistry called 'pollution'. Progress in knowledge on useful autecological properties of organisms or of transfer of such knowledge into bioassay practice has been very small in the past. Thus, the bioassay concept (relation of organisms in a stream to water quality) in water chemistry has brought not much more than visual demonstration of a few overall chemical effects. Our capability to derive chemical conditions from biological observations is, therefore, almost on the same level as fifty years ago. In the author's opinion it is idle to expect much more in the future because of the limitations inherent to natural bioassay systems (relation of organisms in a stream to water quality)."

V REACTIONS OF THE BENTHIC MACROINVERTEBRATE COMMUNITY TO PERTURBATION

A Destruction of Organism Types

1 Beginning with the most sensitive forms, pollutants kill in order of sensitivity until the most tolerant form is the last survivor. This results in a reduction of variety or diversity of organisms.

2 The generalized order of macroinvertebrate disappearance on a sensitivity scale below pollution sources is shown in Figure 2.



As water quality improves, these tend to reappear in the same order.

B The Number of Survivors Increase

1 Competition and predation are reduced between forms.

2 When the pollutant is a food (plants, fertilizers, animals, organic materials).

C The Number of Survivors Decrease

1 The material added is toxic or has no food value.

2 The material added produces toxic conditions as a byproduct of decomposition (e.g., large organic loadings produce an anaerobic environment resulting in the production of toxic sulfides, methanes, etc.)

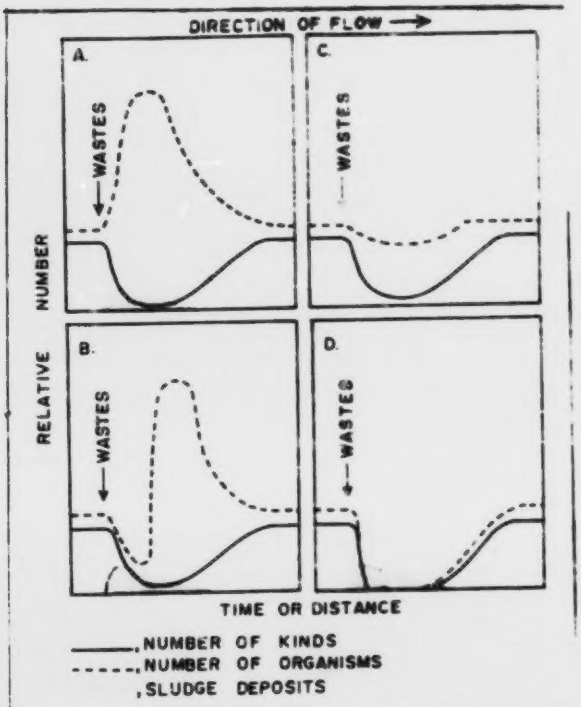
D The Effects May be Manifest in Combinations

1 Of pollutants and their effects.

2 Vary with longitudinal distribution in a stream. (Figure 1)

E Tolerance to Enrichment Grouping (Figure 2)

Flexibility must be maintained in the establishment of tolerance lists based on the response of organisms to the environment because of complex relationships among varying environmental conditions. Some general tolerance patterns can be established. Stonefly and mayfly nymphs, hellgrammites, and caddisfly larvae represent a grouping (sensitive or intolerant) that is generally quite sensitive to environmental changes. Blackfly larvae, scuds, sowbugs, snails, fingernail clams, dragonfly and damselfly naiads, and most kinds of midge larvae are facultative (or intermediate) in tolerance. Sludge-worms, some kinds of midge larvae (bloodworms), and some leeches



Four basic responses of bottom animals to pollution. A. Organic wastes eliminate the sensitive bottom animals and provide food in the form of sludges for the surviving tolerant forms. B. Large quantities of decomposing organic wastes eliminate sensitive bottom animals and the excessive quantities of byproducts of organic decomposition inhibit the tolerant forms; in time, with natural stream purification, water quality improves so that the tolerant forms can flourish, utilizing the sludges as food. C. Toxic materials eliminate the sensitive bottom animals; sludge is absent and food is restricted to that naturally occurring in the stream, which limits the number of tolerant surviving forms. Very toxic materials may eliminate all organisms below a waste source. D. Organic sludges with toxic materials reduce the number of kinds by eliminating sensitive forms. Tolerant survivors do not utilize the organic sludges because the toxicity restricts their growth.

Figure 1

are tolerant to comparatively heavy loads of organic pollutants. Sewage mosquitoes and rat-tailed maggots are tolerant of anaerobic environments.

F Structural Limitations

1 The morphological structure of a species limits the type of environment it may occupy.

a Species with complex appendages and exposed complicated respiratory structures, such as stonefly nymphs, mayfly nymphs, and caddisfly larvae, that are subjected to a constant deluge of setteable particulate matter soon abandon the polluted area because of the constant preening required to maintain mobility or respiratory functions; otherwise, they are soon smothered.

b Benthic animals in depositing zones may also be burdened by "sewage fungus" growths including stalked protozoans. Many of these stalked protozoans are host specific.

2 Species without complicated external structures, such as bloodworms and sludgeworms, are not so limited in adaptability.

a A sludgeworm, for example, can burrow in a deluge of particulate organic matter and flourish on the abundance of "manna."

b Morphology also determines the species that are found in riffles, on vegetation, on the bottom of pools, or in bottom deposits.

VI SAMPLING PROCEDURES

A Fauna

1 Qualitative sampling determines the variety of species occupying an area. Samples may be taken by any method that will capture representatives of the species present. Collections from such samplings indicate changes in the environment, but generally do not accurately reflect the degree of change. Mayflies, for example, may be reduced from 100 to 1 per square meter. Qualitative data would indicate the presence of both species, but might not necessarily delineate the change in predominance from mayflies to sludgeworms. The stop net or kick sampling technique is often used.

2 Quantitative sampling is performed to observe changes in predominance. The most common quantitative sampling tools are the Petersen and Ekman grabs and the Surber stream bottom or square-foot sampler. Of these, the Petersen grab samples the widest variety of substrates. The Ekman grab is limited to fine-textured and soft substrates, such as silt and sludge, unless hydraulically operated.

The Surber sampler is designed for sampling riffle areas; it requires moving water to transport dislodged organisms into its net and is limited to depths of two feet or less.

Kick samples of one minute duration will usually yield around 1,000 macroinvertebrates per square meter (10.5 X a one minute kick= organisms/m^2).

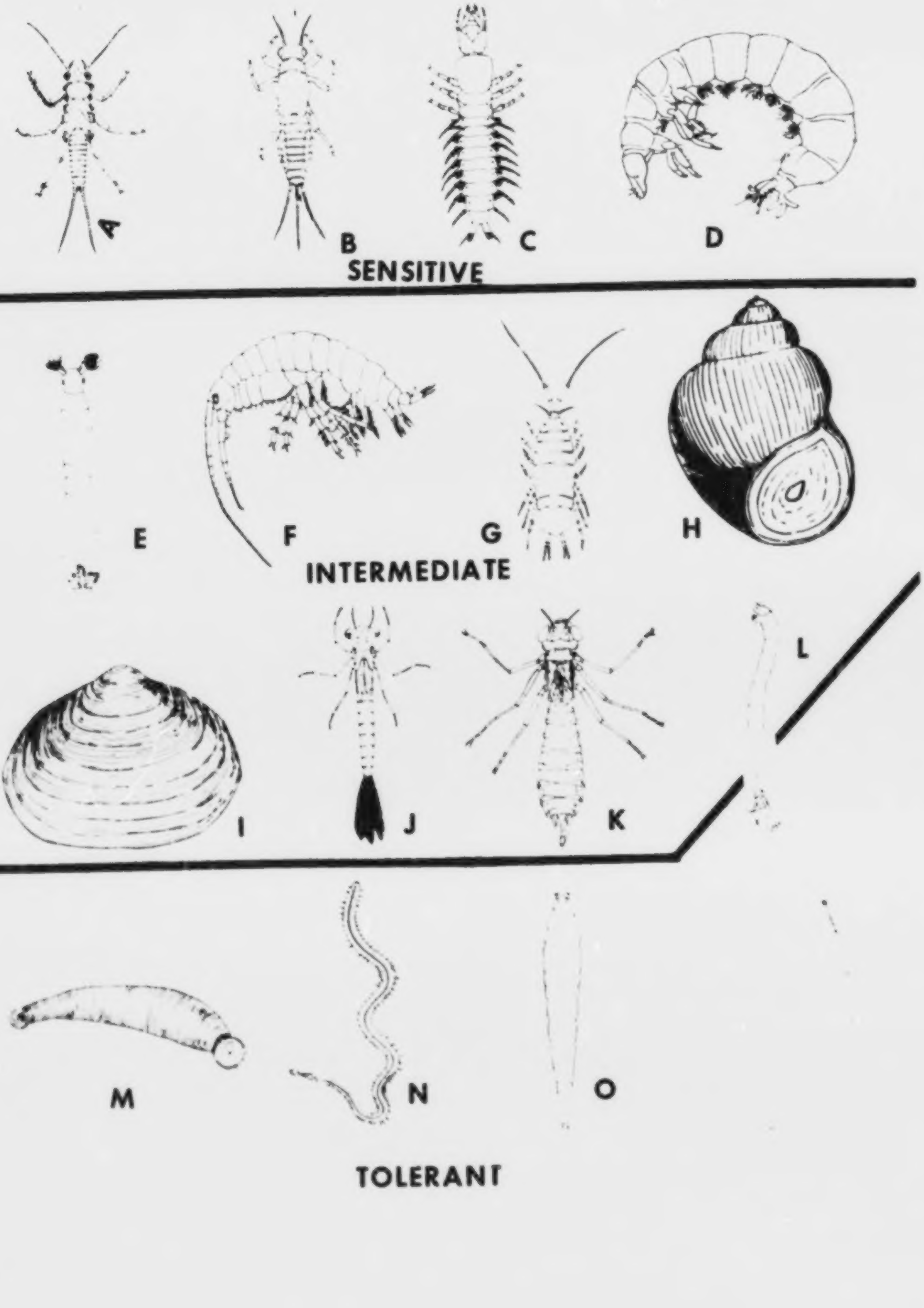
3 Manipulated substrates (often referred to as "artificial substrates") are placed in a stream and left for a specific time period. Benthic macroinvertebrates readily colonize these forming a manipulated community. Substrates may be constructed of natural materials or synthetic; may be placed in a natural situation or unnatural; and may or may not resemble the normal stream community. The point being that a great number of environmental variables are standardized and thus upstream and downstream stations may be legitimately compared in terms of water quality of the moving water column. They naturally do not evaluate what may or may not be happening to the substrate beneath said monitor. The latter could easily be the more important.

REPRESENTATIVE BOTTOM-DWELLING MACROANIMALS

Drawings from Geckler, J., K.M. Mackenthun and W.M. Ingram, 1963. Glossary of Commonly Used Biological and Related Terms in Water and Waste Water Control, DHEW, PHS, Cincinnati, Ohio, Pub. No. 999-WP-2.

A	Stonefly nymph	(Plecoptera)
B	Mayfly nymph	(Ephemeroptera)
C	Hellgrammite or Dobsonfly larvae	(Megaloptera)
D	Caddisfly larvae	(Trichoptera)
E	Black fly larvae	(Simuliidae)
F	Scud	(Amphipoda)
G	Aquatic sowbug	(Isopoda)
H	Snail	(Gastropoda)
I	Fingernail clam	(Sphaeriidae)
J	Damselfly naiad	(Zygoptera)
K	Dragonfly naiad	(Anisoptera)
L	Bloodworm or midge fly larvae	(Chironomidae)
M	Leech	(Hirudinea)
N	Sludgeworm	(Tubificidae)
O	Sewage fly larvae	(Psychodidae)
P	Rat-tailed maggot	(Tubifera-Eristalis)

KEY TO FIGURE 2


A
B
C
D
SENSITIVE
E
F
G
H
INTERMEDIATE
I
J
K
L
M
N
O
TOLERANT

4 Invertebrates which are part of the benthos, but under certain conditions become carried downstream in appreciable numbers, are known as Drift.

Groups which have members forming a conspicuous part of the drift include the insect orders Ephemeroptera, Trichoptera, Plecoptera and the crustacean order Amphipoda.

Drift net studies are widely used and have a proven validity in stream water quality studies.

5 The collected sample is screened with a standard sieve to concentrate the organisms; these are sorted from the retained material, and the number of each kind determined. Data are then adjusted to number per unit area, usually to number of bottom organisms per square meter.

6 Independently, neither qualitative not quantitative data suffice for thorough analyses of environmental conditions. A cursory examination to detect damage may be made with either method, but a combination of the two gives a more precise determination. If a choice must be made, quantitative sampling would be best, because it incorporates a partial qualitative sample.

7 Studies have shown that a significant number and variety of macroinvertebrates inhabit the hyporheic zone in streams. As much as 80% of the macroinvertebrates may be below 5 cm in this hyporheic zone. Most samples and sampling techniques do not penetrate the substrate below the 5 cm depth. All quantitative studies must take this and other substrate factors into account when absolute figures are presented on standing crop and numbers per square meter, etc.

B Flora

1 Direct quantitative sampling of naturally growing bottom algae is difficult. It is basically one of collecting algae from a standard or uniform area of the bottom substrates without disturbing the delicate growths and thereby distort the sample. Indirect quantitative sampling is the best available method.

2 Manipulated substrates, such as wood blocks, glass or plexiglass slides, bricks, etc., are placed in a stream. Bottom-attached algae will grow on these artificial substrates. After two or more weeks, the artificial substrates are removed for analysis. Algal growths are scraped from the substrates and the quantity measured. Since the exposed substrate area and exposure periods are equal at all of the sampling sites, differences in the quantity of algae can be related to changes in the quality of water flowing over the substrates.

VII ANALYSES OF MICROFLORA

A Enumeration

1 The quantity of algae on manipulated substrates can be measured in several ways. Microscopic counts of algal cells and dry weight of a algal material are long established methods.

2 Microscopic counts involve thorough scraping, mixing and suspension of the algal cells. From this mixture an aliquot of cells is withdrawn for enumeration under a microscope. Dry weight is determined by drying and weighing the algal sample. then igniting the sample to burn off the algal materials, leaving inert inorganic materials that are again weighed. The difference between initial weight and weight after ignition is attributed to algae.

3 Any organic sediments, however, that settle on the substrate along with the algae are processed also.

Thus, if organic wastes are present appreciable errors may enter into this method.

B Chlorophyll Analysis

1 During the past decade, chlorophyll analysis has become a popular method for estimating algal growth. Chlorophyll is extracted from the algae and is used as an index of the quantity of algae present. The advantages of chlorophyll analysis are rapidity, simplicity, and vivid pictorial results.

2 The algae are scrubbed from the artificial substrate samples, ground, then each sample is steeped in equal volumes, 90% aqueous acetone, which extracts the chlorophyll from the algal cells. The chlorophyll extracts may be compared visually.

3 Because the cholorophyll extracts fade with time, colorimetry should be used for permanent records. For routine records, simple colorimeters will suffice. At very high cholorophyll densities, interference with colorimetry occurs, which must be corrected through serial dilution of the sample or with a nomograph.

C Autotrophic Index

The chlorophyll content of the periphyton is used to estimate the algal biomass and as an indicator of the nutrient content (or trophic Status) or toxicity of the water and the taxonomic composition of the community. Periphyton growing in surface water relatively free of organic pollution consists largely of algae, which contain approximately 1 to 2 percent chlorophyll a by dry weight. If dissolved or particulate organic matter is present in high concentrations, large populations of filamentous bacteria, stalked protozoa, and other nonchlorophyll bearing microorganisms develop and the percentage of chlorophyll is then reduced. If the biomass-chlorophyll a relationship is expressed as a ration (the autotrophic index), values greater than 100 may result from organic pollution (Weber and McFarland, 1969; Weber, 1973).

$$\text{Autotrophic Index} = \frac{\text{Ash-free Wgt (mg/m}^2)}{\text{Chlorophyll a (mg/m}^2)}$$

VIII MACROINVERTEBRATE ANALYSES

A Taxonomic

The taxonomic level to which animals are identified depends on the needs, experience, and available resources. However, the taxonomic level to which identifications are carried in each major group should be constant throughout a given study.

B Biomass

Macroinvertebrate biomass (weight of organisms per unit area) is a useful quantitative estimation of standing crop.

C Reporting Units

Data from quantitative samples may be used to obtain:

1 Total standing crop of individuals, or biomass, or both per unit area or unit volume or sample unit, and

2 Numbers of biomass, or both, of individual taxa per unit area or unit volume or sample unit.

3 Data from devices sampling a unit area of bottom will be reported in grams dry weight or ash-free dry weight per square meter (gm/m^2), or numbers of individuals per square meter, or both.

4 Data from multiplate samplers will be reported in terms of the total surface area of the plates in grams dry weight or ash-free dry weight or numbers of individuals per square meter, or both.

5 Data from rock-filled basket samplers will be reported as grams dry weight or numbers of individuals per sampler, or both.

IX FACTORS INVOLVED IN DATA INTERPRETATION

Two very important factors in data evaluation are a thorough knowledge of conditions under which the data were collected and a critical assessment of the reliability of the data's representation of the situation.

A Maximum-Minimum Values

The evaluation of physical and chemical data to determine their effects on aquatic organisms is primarily dependent on maximum and minimum observed values. The mean is useful only when the data are relatively uniform. The minimum or maximum values usually create acute conditions in the environment.

B Identification

Precise identification of organisms to species requires a specialist in limited taxonomic groups. Many immature aquatic forms have not been associated with the adult species. Therefore, one who is certain of the genus but not the species should utilize the generic name, not a potentially incorrect species name. The method of interpreting biological data on the basis of numbers of kinds and numbers of organisms will typically suffice.

C Lake and Stream Influence

Physical characteristics of a body of water also affect animal populations. Lakes or impounded bodies of water support different faunal associations from rivers. The number of kinds present in a lake may be less than that found in a stream because of a more uniform habitat. A lake is all pool, but a river is composed of both pools and riffles. The nonflowing water of lake exhibits a more complete settling of particulate organic matter that naturally supports a higher population of detritus consumers. For these reasons, the bottom fauna of a lake or impoundment, or stream pool cannot be directly compared with that of a flowing stream riffle.

D Extrapolation

How can bottom-dwelling macrofauna data be extrapolated to other environmental components? It must be borne in mind that a component of the total environment is being sampled. If the sampled component exhibits changes, then so must the other interdependent components of the environment. For example, a clean stream with a wide variety of desirable bottom organisms would be expected to have a wide variety of desirable bottom fishes; when pollution reduces the number of bottom organisms, a comparable reduction would be expected in the number of fishes. Moreover, it would be logical to conclude that any factor that eliminates all bottom organisms would eliminate most other aquatic forms of life. A clean stream with a wide variety of desirable bottom organisms would be expected to permit a variety of recreational, municipal and industrial uses.

E Expression of Data

1 Standing crop and taxonomic composition

Standing crop and numbers of taxa (types or kinds) in a community are highly sensitive to environmental perturbations resulting from the introduction of contaminants. These parameters, particularly standing crop, may vary considerably in unpolluted habitats, where they may range from the typically high standing crop of littoral zones of glacial lakes to the sparse fauna of torrential soft-water streams. Thus, it is important that comparisons are made only between truly comparable environments.

2 Diversity

Diversity indices are an additional tool for measuring the quality of the environment and the effect of induced stress on the structure of a community of macroinvertebrates. Their use is based on the generally observed phenomenon that relatively undisturbed environments support communities having large numbers of species with no individual species present in overwhelming abundance. If the species in such a community are ranked on the basis of their numerical abundance, there will be relatively few species with large numbers of individuals and large numbers of species represented by only a few individuals. Many forms of stress tend to reduce diversity by making the environment unsuitable for some species or by giving other species a competitive advantage.

3 Indicator-organism scheme (rat-tailed maggot studies)

a For this technique, the individual taxa are classified on the basis of their tolerance or intolerance to various levels of putrescible wastes. Taxa are classified according to their presence or absence of different environments as determined by field studies. Some reduce data based on the presence or absence of indicator organisms to a simple numerical form for ease in presentation.

b "Biologists are engaging in fruitless exercise if they intend to make any decisions about indicator organisms by operating at the generic level of macroinvertebrate identifications."

4 Reference station methods

Comparative or control station methods compare the qualitative characteristics of the fauna in clean water habitats with those of fauna in habitats subject to stress. Stations are compared on the basis of richness of species.

If adequate background data are available to an experienced investigator, these techniques can prove quite useful—particularly for the purpose of demonstrating the effects of gross to moderate organic contamination on the macroinvertebrate community. To detect more subtle changes in the macroinvertebrate community, collect quantitative data on numbers or biomass of organisms. Data on the presence of tolerant and intolerant taxa and richness of species may be effectively summarized for evaluation and presentation by means of line graphs, bar graphs, pie diagrams, histograms, or pictoral diagrams.

X IMPORTANT ASSOCIATED ANALYSES

A The Chemical Environment

1 Dissolved oxygen

2 Nutrients

3 Toxic materials

4 Acidity and alkalinity

5 Etc.

B The Physical Environment

1 Suspended solids

2 Temperature

3 Light penetration

4 Sediment composition

5 Etc.

XI AREAS IN WHICH BENTHIC STUDIES CAN BEST BE APPLIED

A Damage Assessment or Stream Health

If a stream is suffering from abuse the biota will so indicate. A biologist can determine damages by looking at the "critter" assemblage in a matter of minutes. Usually, if damages are not found, it will not be necessary to alert the remainder of the agency's staff.

pack all the equipment, pay travel and per diem, and then wait five days before enough data can be assembled to begin evaluation.

B By determining what damages have been done, the potential cause "list" can be reduced to a few items for emphasis and the entire "wonderful worlds" of science and engineering need not be practiced with the result that much data are discarded later because they were not applicable to the problem being investigated.

C Good benthic data associated with chemical, physical, and engineering data can be used to predict the direction of future changes and to estimate the amount of pollutants that need to be removed from the waterways to make them productive and useful once more.

D The benthic macroinvertebrates are an easily used index to stream health that citizens may use in stream improvement programs. "Adopt-a-stream" efforts have successfully used simple macroinvertebrate indices.

E The potential for restoring biological integrity in our flowing streams using macroinvertebrates has barely been touched.

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Descriptors: Aquatic Life, Benthos, Water Quality, Degradation, Environmental Effects, Trophic Level, Biological Communities, Ecological Distributions.

ECOLOGY PRIMER
(from Aldo Leopold's A SAND COUNTY ALMANAC)

I Ecology is a belated attempt to convert our collective knowledge of biotic materials into a collective wisdom of biotic management.

II The outstanding scientific discovery of the twentieth century is not television or radio, but rather the complexity of the land organism.

III One of the penalties of an ecological education is that one lives alone in a world of wounds. Much of the damage inflicted on land is quite invisible to laymen. An ecologist must either harden his shell and make believe that the consequences of science are none of his business, or he must be the doctor who sees the marks of death in a community that believes itself well and does not want to be told otherwise.

IV Ecosytems have been sketched out as pyramids, cycles, and energy circuits. The concept of land as an energy circuit conveys three basic ideas:

A That land is not merely soil.

B That the native plants and animals kept the energy circuit open; others may or may not.

C That man-made changes are of a different order than evolutionary changes, and have effects more comprehensive than is intended or foreseen.

V The process of altering the pyramid for human occupation releases stored energy, and this often gives rise, during the pioneering period, to a deceptive exuberance of plant and animal life, both wild and tame. These releases of biotic capital tend to becloud or postpone the penalties of violence.

VI A thing is right when it tends to preserve the integrity, stability, and beauty of the biotic community. It is wrong when it tends otherwise.

VII Every farm is a textbook on animal ecology; every stream is a textbook on aquatic ecology; conservation is the translation of the book.

VIII There are two spiritual dangers in not owning a farm:

A One is the danger of supposing that breakfast comes from the grocery.

B The other, that heat comes from the furnace.

IX In general, the trend of the evidence indicates that in land, just as in the human body, the symptoms may lie in one organ and the cause in another. The practices we now call conservation are, to a large extent, local alleviations of biotic pain. They are necessary, but they must not be confused with cures.

X An Atom at large in the biota is too free to know freedom; an atom back in the sea has forgotten it. For every atom lost to the sea, the prairie pulls another out of the decaying rocks. The only certain truth is that its creatures must suck hard, live fast, and die often, lest its losses exceed its gains.

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Descriptor: Ecology

GLOBAL DETERIORATION AND OUR ENVIRONMENTAL CRISIS

I FROM LOCAL TO REGIONAL TO GLOBAL PROBLEMS

A Environmental problems do not stop at national frontiers, or ideological barriers. Pollution in the atmosphere and oceans taints all nations, even those benignly favored by geography, climate, or natural resources.

1 The smokestacks of one country can pollute the air and water of another.

2 Toxic effluents poured into an international river can kill fish in a neighboring nation and ultimately pollute international seas.

B In Antarctica, thousands of miles from pollution sources, penguins and fish contain DDT in their fat. Recent layers of snow and ice on the white continent contain measurable amounts of lead. The increase can be correlated with the earliest days of lead smelting and combustion of leaded gasolines.

C International cooperation, therefore, is necessary on many environmental fronts.

1 Sudden accidents that chaotically damage the environment - such as oil spills from a tanker at sea - require international cooperation both for prevention and for cleanup.

2 Environmental effects cannot be effectively treated by unilateral action.

3 The ocean can no longer be considered a dump.

D "One of the penalties of an ecological education is that one lives alone in a world of wounds. Much of the damage inflicted on land is quite invisible to laymen. An ecologist must either harden his shell and make believe that the consequences of science are none of his business, or he must be the doctor who sees the marks of death in a community that believes itself well and does not want to be told otherwise." Aldo Leopold

II CHANGES IN ECOSYSTEMS ARE OCCURRING CONTINUOUSLY

A Myriad interactions take place at every moment of the day as plants and animals respond to variations in their surroundings and to each other. Evolution has produced for each species, including man, a genetic composition that limits how far that species can go in adjusting to sudden changes in its surroundings. But within these limits the several thousand species in an ecosystem, or for that matter, the millions in the biosphere, continuously adjust to outside stimuli. Since interactions are so numerous, they form long chains of reactions.

B Small changes in one part of an ecosystem are likely to be felt and compensated for eventually throughout the system. Dramatic examples of change can be seen where man has altered the course of nature. It is vividly evident in his well-intentioned but poorly thought out tampering with river, lake, and other ecosystems.

1 The Aswan High Dam

2 The St. Lawrence Seaway

3 Lake Kariba

4 The Great Lakes

5 Valley of Mexico

6 California earthquake (Scientific America 3981, p. 333)

7 Everglades and the Miami, Florida Jetport

8 Copperhill, Tennessee (Copper Basin)

9 (You may add others)

C Ecosystem Stability

1 The stability of a particular ecosystem depends on its diversity. The more interdependencies in an ecosystem, the greater the chances that it will be able to compensate for changes imposed upon it.

2 A cornfield or lawn has little natural stability. If they are not constantly and carefully cultivated, they will not remain cornfields or lawns but will soon be overgrown with a wide variety of hardier plants constituting a more stable ecosystem.

3 The chemical elements that make up living systems also depend on complex, diverse sources to prevent cyclic shortages or oversupply.

4 Similar diversity is essential for the continued functioning of the cycle by which atmospheric nitrogen is made available to allow life to exist. This cycle depends on a wide variety of organisms, including soil bacteria and fungi, which are often destroyed by pesticides in the soil.

D Biological Pollution

Contamination of living native biotas by introduction of exotic life forms has been called biological pollution by Lachner et al. Some of these introductions are compared to contamination as severe as a dangerous chemical release. They also threaten to replace known wildlife resources with species of little or unknown value.

1 Tropical areas have especially been vulnerable. Florida is referred to as "a biological cesspool of introduced life."

2 Invertebrates

a Asian Clams have a pelagic veliger larvae, thus, a variety of hydro installations are vulnerable to subsequent pipe clogging by the adult clams.

b Melanian snails are intermediate hosts for various trematodes parasitic on man.

3 Vertebrates

a At least 25 exotic species of fish have been established in North America.

b Birds, including starlings and cattle egrets.

c Mammals, including nutria.

4 Aquatic plants

Over twenty common exotic species are growing wild in the United States. The problem of waterway clogging has been especially severe in parts of the Southeast.

5 Pathogens and Pests

Introduction of insect pests and tree pathogens have had severe economic effects.

III "LAWS OF ECOLOGY"

A Four principles have been enunciated by Dr. Barry Commoner.

1 Everything is connected to everything else.

2 Everything must go somewhere.

3 Nature knows best.

4 There is no such thing as a free lunch.

B These may be summarized by the principle, "you can't do just one thing."

IV THE THREE PRINCIPLES OF ENVIRONMENTAL CONTROL (Wolman)

A You can't escape.

B You have to organize.

C You have to pay.

V LAND AS AN ENERGY CIRCUIT

A Tenants of Leopold

1 That land is not merely soil

2 Native plants and animals keep the energy circuit open; others may or may not.

3 Man-made changes are of a different order than evolutionary changes, and often have effects more comprehensive than is intended or foreseen.

B Ecosystems are integrated

Waters, like soil, are part of the energy circuit. Industry, by polluting waters or obstructing them with dams, may exclude the plants and animals necessary to keep energy in circulation.

C Tinkering with the pyramid of life

The process of altering the pyramid for human occupation releases stored energy, and this often gives rise, during the pioneering period, to a deceptive exuberance of plant and animal life, both wild and tame. These releases of biotic capital tend to becloud or postpone the penalties of violence.

D According to Leopold, the outstanding discovery of the twentieth century is not radio or television (or the technology capable of placing man on the moon's surface), but rather the complexity of the land organism.

VI POLLUTION COMES IN MANY PACKAGES

A The sources of air, water, and land pollution are interrelated and often interchangeable.

1 A single source may pollute the air with smoke and chemicals, the land with solid wastes, and a river or lake with chemical and other wastes.

2 Control of air pollution may produce more solid wastes, which then pollute the land or water.

3 Control of wastewater effluent may convert it into solid wastes, which must be disposed of on land, or by combustion to the air.

4 Some pollutants - chemicals, radiation, pesticides - appear in all media.

B "Disposal" is as important and as costly as purification.

VII PERSISTENT CHEMICALS IN THE ENVIRONMENT

Increasingly complex manufacturing processes, coupled with rising industrialization, create greater amounts of exotic wastes potentially toxic to humans and aquatic life.

They may also be teratogenic (toxicants responsible for changes in the embryo with resulting birth defects, ex., thalidomide), mutagenic (insults which produce mutations, ex., radiation), or carcinogenic (insults which induce cancer, ex., benzopyrenes) in effect.

A Metals - current levels of cadmium, lead, and other substances whose effects on humans and fish and wildlife are not fully understood constitute a mounting concern. Mercury pollution, for example, has become a serious national problem, yet mercury has been present on earth since time immemorial. More research is needed, yet we dare not relax our standards until definitive answers have been provided.

B Pesticides

1 A pesticide and its metabolites may move through an ecosystem in many ways. Hard (pesticides which are persistent, having a long half-life in the environment, includes the organochlorines, ex., DDT) pesticides ingested or otherwise borne by the target species

will stay in the environment, possibly to be recycled or concentrated further through the natural action of food chains if the species is eaten. Most of the volume of pesticides do not reach their target at all.

2 Biological magnification

Initially, low levels of persistent pesticides in air, soil, and water may be concentrated at every step up the food chain. Minute aquatic organisms and scavengers, which screen water and bottom mud having pesticide levels of a few parts per billion, can accumulate levels measured in parts per million - a thousandfold increase. The sediments including fecal deposits are continuously recycled by the bottom animals.

a Oysters, for instance, will concentrate DDT 70,000 times higher in their tissures than it's concentration in surrounding water. They can also partially cleanse themselves in water free of DDT.

b Fish feeding on lower organisms build up concentrations in their visceral fat which may reach several thousand parts per million and levels in their edible flesh of hundreds of parts per million.

c Larger animals, such as fish-eating gulls and other birds, can further concentrate the chemicals. A survey on organochlorine residues in aquatic birds in the Canadian prairie provinces showed that California and ring-billed gulls were among the most contaminated. Since gulls breed in colonies, breeding population changes can be detected and related to levels of chemical contamination. Ecological research on colonial birds to monitor the effects of chemical pollution on the environment is useful.

C "Polychlorinated biphenyls" (PCB's). PCB's are used in plasticizers, asphalt, ink, paper, and a host of other products. Action has been taken to curtail their release to the environment, since their effects are similar to hard pesticides.

D Other compounds which are toxic and accumulate in the ecosystem:

1 Phalate esters - may interfere with pesticide analyses

2 Benzapyrenes

3 Etc.

E Metabolic Responses (in humans and animals) We and animals are constantly exposed to a variety of chemical substances. Most of these we can handle (acceptable tolerances). As an example, mercury has always been naturally occuring in tuna in low levels. This is acceptable because of the low levels ingested. No one would likely eat enough tuna to injure their health. If, as in the case in minimata, industrial discharges are significant, eating exposed fish and shell fish can lead to death. Higher organisms are capable of dealing with acceptable tolerances by:

1 Excreting it unchanged.

2 Metabolizing it. Convert it to an innocuous state.

3 Store it. Like in fat, or bone or some other depot. Thus in some cases it would be wise to avoid fatty tissue of some fish.

4 A combination of the above responses.

VIII EXAMPLES OF SOME EARLY WARNING SIGNALS THAT HAVE BEEN DETECTED BUT FORGOTTEN, OR IGNORED.

A Magnetic micro-spherules in lake sediments now used to detect changes in industrialization indicate our slowness to recognize indicators of environmental change.

B Salmonid fish kills in poorly buffered clean lakes in Sweden. Over the past years there had been a successive increase of SO_2 in the air and precipitation. Thus, air-borne contamination from industrialized European countries had a great influence on previously unpolluted waters and their life. This phenomenon is known as "Acid Rain".

C Minimata, Japan and mercury pollution.

D Organochlorine levels in commercial and sport fishing stocks, ex., the lower Mississippi River fish kills.

E You may complete the following:

1

2 etc.

IX SUMMARY

A World Ecosystems are linked through biogeochemical cycles which are determined by patterns of transfer and concentrations of substances in the biosphere and surface rocks.

B Organisms determine or strongly influence chemical and physical characteristics of the atmosphere, soil, and waters.

C The inability of man to adequately predict or control his effects on the environment is indicated by his lack of knowledge concerning the net effect of atmospheric pollution on the earth's climate.

D Serious potential hazards for man which are all globally dispersed, are radionuclides, organic chemicals, pesticides, heavy metals and combustion products.

E Environmental destruction is in lock-step with our population growth.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT:

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Descriptors: Ecology, Environmental Effects

THE EFFECTS OF POLLUTION ON LAKES

I INTRODUCTION

The pollution of lakes inevitably results in a number of undesirable changes in water quality which are directly or indirectly related to changes in the aquatic community.

A Industrial Wastes may contain the following:

1 Sewage

2 Dissolved organics--synthetics, food processing wastes, etc.

3 Dissolved minerals--salts, metals (toxic and nontoxic), pigments, acids, etc.

4 Suspended solids--fibers, minerals, degradable and non-degradable organics

5 Petroleum products--oils, greases

6 Waste heat

B The Materials in Domestic Wastes which affect Water Quality are:

1 Pathogenic fecal microorganisms

2 Dissolved nutrients: minerals, vitamins, and other dissolved organic substances

3 Suspended solids (sludge)--degradable and non-degradable organic materials

C Pollution and Eutrophication

The discharge of domestic wastes often renders the receiving water unsafe for contact water sports and water supplies. For example, some beaches on the eastern seaboard and in metropolitan regions of the Great Lakes are unfit for swimming because of high coliform counts. Other effects of domestic pollution include changes in the abundance and composition of populations of aquatic organisms.

1 As the nutrient level increases, so does the rate of primary production.

2 Shore-line algae and rooted aquatics become more abundant. For example, problems have been experienced with *Cladophora* and *Dichotomosiphon* along the shores of Lakes Ontario, Erie, and Michigan. These growths interfere with swimming, boating, and fishing, and cause odors when the organisms die and decay.

3 The standing crop of phytoplankton increases, resulting in higher counts and greater chlorophyll content. Increases in phytoplankton abundance may result in taste and odor problems in water supplies, filter clogging, high turbidity, changes in water color, and oxygen depletion in the hypolimnion.

4 Populations of fish and larger swimming invertebrates increase, based on the increase in basic food production.

5 Changes in dominant species

a Diatom communities give way to blue-greens. Toxic blue-greens may pose a problem.

b Zooplankton changes include replacement of *Bosmina coregoni* by *B. longirostris*.

c Trout and whitefish are replaced by perch, bass, and rough fish.

d Hypolimnion becomes anaerobic in summer; bottom sludge buildup results in loss of fish food organisms, accompanied by increase in density of sludgeworms (oligochaeta).

II HISTORICAL REVIEW

The cultural eutrophication of a number of lakes in Europe and America has been well documented.

A Zurichsee, Switzerland

1 1896 - sudden increase in *Tabellaria fenestrata*

2 1898 - sudden appearance of *Oscillatoria rubescens* which displaced *Fragilaria capucina*

3 1905 - *Melosira islandica* var. *helvetica* appeared

4 1907 - *Stephanodiscus hantzschii* appeared

5 1911 - *Bosmina longirostris* replaced *B. coregoni*

6 1920
1924 - *O. rubescens* occurred in great quantities

7 1920 - milky-water phenomenon; precipitation of $CaCO_3$ crystals (40μ) due to pH increase resulting from photosynthesis

8 Trout and whitefish replaced by perch, bass, and rough fish

B Hallwilersee, Switzerland

1 1897 - *Oscillataria rubescens* not observed up to this time

2 1898 - *O. rubescens* bloomed, decomposed, formed H_2S, killing off trout and whitefish

C Lake Windermere, England (core study)

1 Little change in diatoms from glacial period until recent times

2 Then *Asterionella* appeared, followed by *Synedra*

3 About 200 years ago, *Asterionella* again became abundant

4 *Asterionella* abundance ascribed to domestic wastes

D Finnish Lakes

Aphanizomenon, *Coelosphaerium*, *Anabaena*, *Microcystis*, are the most common indication of eutrophy.

TABLE 1 CHANGES IN PHYSIO-CHEMICAL PARAMETERS

Zurichsee, Switzerland

Parameter	Date	Value
Chlorides	1888	1.3 mg/l
	1916	4.9 mg/l
Dissolved organics	1888	9.0 mg/l
	1914	20.0 mg/l

		Max.	Min.
Secchi Disk	before 1910	16.8M	3.1M
	1905 - 1910	10.0M	2.1M
	1914 - 1928	10.0M	1.4M
Dissolved oxygen, at 100 M, mid-summer	1910 - 1930	Minimum	100% saturation
	1930 - 1942	"	9% saturation

E Linsley Pond, Connecticut

1 Species making modern appearance include Asterionella formosa, Cyclotella glomerata, Melosira italica, Fragilaria crotonensis, Synedra ulna

2 Asterionella formosa and Melosira italica were considered by Patrick to indicate high dissolved organics

3 Bosmina coregoni replaced by B. longirostris

F Lake Monona, Wisconsin

1 Began receiving treated sewage in 1920, developed blue-green algal blooms.

G Lake Washington, Washington

1 1940 - Bosmina longirostris appeared

2 1955 - Oscillatoria rubescens seen for the first time, and constituted 96% of phytoplankton, July 1

H Lake Erie

1 Phytoplankton counts at Cleveland have increased steadily from less than 500 cells/ml in the 1920's to over 1500 cells/ml in the 1960's

2 Abundance of burrowing mayflies (Hexagenia spp.) in Western Lake Erie decreased from 139/m^2 in 1930, to less than 1/m^2 in 1961.

I Lake Michigan

1 Milky water observed in south end, and in limnetic region in mid-1950's and again in 1967.

2 During the period 1965-1967 the Chicago water treatment plant has found it necessary to increase the carbon dosage from 23 lbs/mil gal to 43 lbs/mil gal, and the chlorine dosage from 20 lbs/mil gal to 25 lbs/mil gal.

3 Phytoplankton counts in the south end now exceed 10,000/ml during the spring bloom.

III FACTORS AFFECTING THE RESPONSE OF LAKES TO POLLUTION INCLUDE:

A Depth-surface area ratio: A large hypolimnion will act as a reservoir to keep nutrients from recirculating in the trophogenic zone during the summer stratification period. Rawson found an inverse relationship between the standing crop of plankton, benthos, and fish, and the mean depth.

B Climate: Low annual water temperatures may restrict the response of the phytoplankton to enrichment.

C Natural color or turbidity: Dystrophic (brown-water) lakes may not develop phytoplankton blooms because of the low transparency of the water.

IV TROPHIC LEVEL

Except in cases where massive algal blooms occur, the trophic status of lakes is often difficult to determine. Core studies are used to determine trends in diatom populations which might indicate changes in nutrient levels over an extended period of time.

V CONTROL OF POLLUTION

The success of efforts to arrest the eutrophication process, and where desirable, reduce the trophic level of a lake, will depend on a thorough knowledge of the nutrient budget.

A Significant quantities of nutrients may enter a lake from one or more of the following sources:

1 Rainfall

2 Ground water

TABLE 2 PARAMETERS COMMONLY USED TO DESCRIBE CONDITIONS

		Oligotrophic Condition
1	Transparency	$\geq$ 10 meters
2	Phosphorus	$\leq$ 1μg/l
3	NO_3 - Nitrogen	$\leq$ 200 μg/l
4	Minimum annual hypolimnetic oxygen concentration	near 100% saturation
5	Chlorophyll	$\leq$ 1 mg/m^3
6	Ash-free weight of seston	$\leq$ 0.1 mg/l
7	Phytoplankton count	$\leq$ 500/ml
8	Phytoplankton quotients	
a	$\frac{\text{number of species of Chlorococcales}}{\text{number of species of Desmids}}$	<1
b	$\frac{\text{Myxophycease+Chlorococcales+Centrales+Euglenaceae}}{\text{Desmidaceae}}$	<1
c	$\frac{\text{Centrales}}{\text{Pennales}}$	0 - 0.2
9	Phytoplankton species present (see outline on plankton in oligotrophic lakes).	

3 Watershed runoff

4 Shoreline domestic and industrial outfalls

5 Pleasure craft and commercial vessels

6 Waterfowl

7 Leaves, pollen, and other organic debris from riparian vegetation

B The supply of nutrients from "natural" sources in some cases may be greater than that from cultural sources, and be sufficient to independently cause a rapid rate of eutrophication regardless of the level of efficiency of treatment of domestic and industrial wastes.

C Many methods have been employed to treat the symptoms, reduce the eutrophication rate, or completely arrest and even reverse the eutrophication process.

1 Use of copper sulfate, sodium arsenite, and organic algicides: It is not economically feasible to use algicides in large lakes.

2 Addition of carbon black to reduce transparency. This is likewise frequently impractical.

3 Harvesting algae by foam fractionation or chemical precipitation.

4 Reducing nutrient supply by (a) removal of N and P from effluents, (b) diversion of effluents, and (c) dilution with nutrient-poor water.

D Examples of lakes where control has been attempted by reducing the nutrient supply, are:

1 Lake Washington, Seattle

The natural water supply for this lake is nutrient poor (Ca = 8 mg/l, $P \leq 5$ μg/l, TDS = 76 mg/l). Since the turnover time of the water in this lake is only three years, it was expected that diversion of sewage would result in a rapid improvement of water quality. Diversion began in 1963, and improvements were noticeable by 1965 - including an increase in transparency, and a reduction in seston, chlorophyll, and epilimnetic phosphorus.

TABLE 3

PHOSPHORUS REDUCTION IN LAKE WASHINGTON

Year	Maximum phosphorus in upper 10 meters (μg/l)
1963	70
1964	66
1965	63

2 Green Lake, Washington

The lake has a long history of heavy blooms of blue-green algae. Beginning in 1959, low-nutrient city water was added to the lake, reducing the concentration of phosphorus by 70% in the inflowing water. By 1966, the lake had been flushed three times. Evidence of improvement in water quality was noted in 1965, when *Aphanizomenon* was replaced by *Gleotrichia*.

3 Lake Tahoe

This lake is still decidedly oligotrophic. To maintain its high level of purity, tertiary treatment facilities were installed in the major sewage treatment plant, and construction is now underway to transport all domestic wastes out of the lake basin.

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Descriptor: Eutrophication

APPLICATION OF BIOLOGICAL DATA

I ECOLOGICAL DATA HAS TRADITIONALLY BEEN DIVIDED INTO TWO GENERAL CLASSES:

A Qualitative - dealing with the taxonomic composition of communities

B Quantitative - dealing with the population density or rates of processes occurring in the communities

Each kind of data has been useful in its own way.

II QUALITATIVE DATA

A Certain species have been identified as:

1 Clean water (sensitive) or oligotrophic

2 Facultative, or tolerant

3 Preferring polluted regions (see: Fjerdinstad 1964, 1965; Gaufin & Tarzwell 1956; Palmer 1963, 1969; Rawson 1956; Teiling 1955)

B Using our knowledge about ecological requirements the biologist may compare the species present

1 At different stations in the same river (Gaufin 1958) or lake (Holland 1968)

2 In different rivers or lakes (Robertson and Powers 1967)

or changes in the species in a river or/lake over a period of several years. (Carr & Hiltunen 1965; Edmondson & Anderson 1956; Fruh, Stewart, Lee & Rohlich 1966; Hasler 1947).

C Until comparatively recent times taxonomic data were not subject to statistical treatment.

III QUANTITATIVE DATA: Typical Parameters of this type include:

A Counts - algae/ml; benthos/m^2; fish/net/day

B Volume - mm^3 algae/liter

C Weight - dry wgt; ash-free wgt.

D Chemical content - chlorophyll; carbohydrate; ATP; DNA; etc.

E Calories (or caloric equivalents)

F Processes - productivity; respiration

IV Historically, the chief use of statistics in treating biological data has been in the collection and analysis of samples for these parameters. Recently, many methods have been devised to convert taxonomic data into numerical form to permit:

A Better communication between the biologists and other scientific disciplines

B Statistical treatment of taxonomic data

C In the field of pollution biology these methods include:

1 Numerical ratings of organisms on the basis of their pollution tolerance

(saprobic valency: Zelinka & Sladecek 1964)

(pollution index: Palmer 1969)

2 Use of quotients or ratios of species in different taxonomic groups (Nygaard 1949)

3 Simple indices of community diversity:

a Organisms are placed in taxonomic groups which behave similarly under the same ecological conditions. The number of species in these groups found at "healthy" stations is compared to that found at "experimental" stations. (Patrick 1950)

b A truncated log normal curve is plotted on the basis of the number of individuals per diatom species. (Patrick, Hohn, & Wallace 1954)

c Sequential comparison index. (Cairns, Albough, Busey & Chanay 1968). In this technique, similar organisms encountered sequentially are grouped into "runs".

$$\text{SCI} = \frac{\text{runs}}{\text{total organisms examined}}$$

d Ratio of carotenoids to chlorophyll in phytoplankton populations:

OD_{430}/OD_{665} (Margalef 1968)

OD_{435}/OD_{670} (Tanaka, et al 1961)

e The number of diatom species present at a station is considered indicative of water quality or pollution level. (Williams 1964)

f $\dfrac{\text{number of species (S)}}{\text{number of individuals (N)}}$

g $\dfrac{\text{number of species (S)}}{\text{square root of number of individuals} (\sqrt{N})}$

h $\dfrac{S - 1}{\log_e N}$ (Menhinick 1964)

i $d = \dfrac{\Sigma n_i (n_i - 1)}{N (N - 1)}$ (Simpson 1949)

where n_i = number of individuals belonging to the i-th species, and

N = total number of individuals

j Information theory:

The basic equation used for information theory applications was developed by Margalef (1957).

$$I = \frac{1}{N} \log_2 \frac{N!}{N_a ! N_b ! \ldots N_s !}$$

where I - information/individual; $N_a, N_b \ldots N_s$ are the number of individuals in species a, b, ... s, and N is their sum.

This equation has also been used with:

1) The fatty acid content of algae (McIntire, Tinsley, and Lowry 1969)

2) Algal productivity (Dickman 1968)

3) Benthic biomass (Wilhm 1968)

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Descriptors: Analytical Techniques, Indicators

SIGNIFICANCE OF "LIMITING FACTORS" TO POPULATION VARIATION

I INTRODUCTION

A All aquatic organisms do not react uniformly to the various chemical, physical and biological features in their environment. Through normal evolutionary processes various organisms have become adapted to certain combinations of environmental conditions. The successful development and maintenance of a population or community depend upon harmonious ecological balance between environmental conditions and tolerance of the organisms to variations in one or more of these conditions.

B A factor whose presence or absence exerts some restraining influence upon a population through incompatibility with species requirements or tolerance is said to be a limiting factor. The principle of limiting factors is one of the major aspects of the environmental control of aquatic organisms (Figure 1).

II PRINCIPLE OF LIMITING FACTORS

This principle rests essentially upon two basic concepts. One of these relates organisms to the environmental supply of materials essential for their growth and development. The second pertains to the tolerance which organisms exhibit toward environmental conditions.

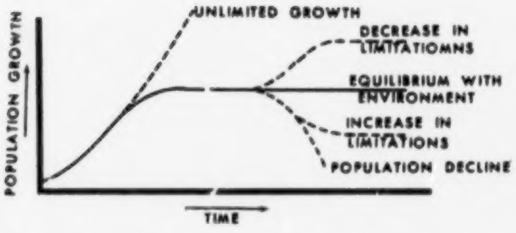

Figure 1. The relationships of limiting factors to population growth and development.

A Liebig's Law of the Minimum enunciates the first basic concept. In order for an organism to inhabit a particular environment, specified levels of the materials necessary for growth and development (nutrients, respiratory gases, etc.) must be present. If one of these materials is absent from the environment or present in minimal quantities, a given species will only survive in limited numbers, if at all (Figure 2).

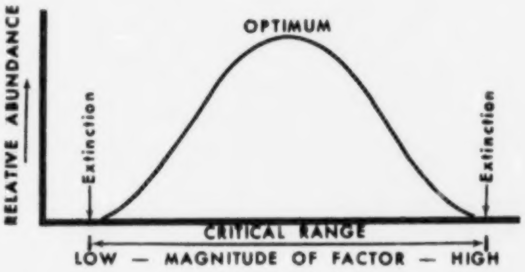

Figure 2. Relationships of environmental factors and the abundance of organisms.

1 The subsidiary principle of factor interaction states that high concentration or availability of some substance, or the action of some factor in the environment, may modify utilization of the minimum one. For example:

a The uptake of phosphorus by the algae Nitzchia closterium is influenced by the relative quantities of nitrate and phosphate in the environment; however, nitrate utilization appears to be unaffected by the phosphate (Reid, 1961).

b The assimilation of some algae is closely related to temperature.

c The rate of oxygen utilization by fish may be affected by many other substances or factors in the environment.

d Where strontium is abundant, mollusks are able to substitute it, to a partial extent, for calcium in their shells (Odum, 1959).

2 If a material is present in large amounts, but only a small amount is available for use by the organism, the amount available and not the total amount present determines whether or not the particular material is limiting (calcium in the form of $CaCO_3$).

B Shelford pointed out in his Law of Tolerance that there are maximum as well as minimum values of most environmental factors which can be tolerated. Absence or failure of an organism can be controlled by the deficiency or excess of any factor which may approach the limits of tolerance for that organism (Figure 3).

Minimum Limit of Toleration		Range of Optimum of Factors	Maximum Limit of Toleration	
Absent	Decreasing Abundance	Greatest Abundance	Decreasing Abundance	Absent

Figure 3. Shelford's Law of Tolerance.

1 Organisms have an ecological minimum and maximum for each environmental factor with a range in between called the critical range which represents the range of tolerance (Figure 2). The actual range thru which an organism can grow, develop and reproduce normally is usually much smaller than its total range of tolerance.

2 Purely deleterious factors (heavy metals, pesticides, etc.) have a maximum tolerable value, but no optimum (Figure 4).

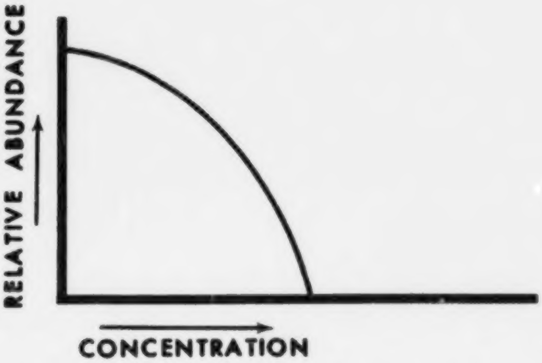

Figure 4. Relationship of purely harmful factors and the abundance of organisms.

3 Tolerance to environmental factors varies widely among aquatic organisms.

a A species may exhibit a wide range of tolerance toward one factor and a narrow range toward another. Trout, for instance, have a wide range of tolerance for salinity and a narrow range for temperature.

b All stages in the life history of an organism do not necessarily have the same ranges of tolerance. The period of reproduction is a critical time in the life cycle of most organisms.

c The range of tolerance toward one factor may be modified by another factor. The toxicity of most substances increases as the temperature increases.

d The range of tolerance toward a given factor may vary geographically within the same species. Organisms that adjust to local conditions are called ecotypes.

e The range of tolerance toward a given factor may vary seasonally. In general organisms tend to be more sensitive to environmental changes in summer than in other seasons. This is primarily due to the higher summer temperatures.

4 A wide range of distribution of a species is usually the result of a wide range of tolerances. Organisms with a wide range of tolerance for all factors are likely to be the most widely distributed, although their growth rate may vary greatly. A one-year old carp, for instance, may vary in size from less than an ounce to more than a pound depending on the habitat.

5 To express the relative degree of tolerance for a particular environmental factor the prefix eury (wide) or steno (narrow) is added to a term for that feature (Figure 5).

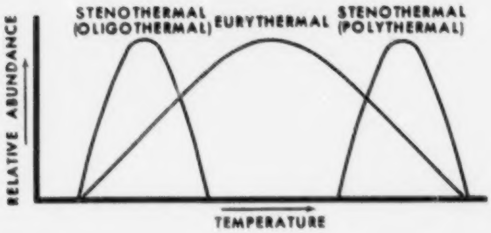

Figure 5. Comparison of relative limits of tolerance of stenothermal and eurythermal organisms.

C The law of the minimum as it pertains to factors affecting metabolism, and the law of tolerance as it relates to density and distribution, can be combined to form a broad principle of limiting factors.

1 The abundance, distribution, activity and growth of a population are determined by a combination of factors, any one of which may through scarcity or overabundance be limiting.

2 The artificial introduction of various substances into the environment tends to eliminate limiting minimums for some species and create intolerable maximums for others.

3 The biological productivity of any body of water is the end result of interaction of the organisms present with the surrounding environment.

III VALUE AND USE OF THE PRINCIPLE OF LIMITING FACTORS

A The organism-environment relationship is apt to be so complex that not all factors are of equal importance in a given situation; some links of the chain guiding the organism are weaker than others. Understanding the broad principle of limiting factors and the subsidiary principles involved make the task of ferreting out the weak link in a given situation much easier and possibly less time consuming and expensive.

1 If an organism has a wide range of tolerance for a factor which is relatively constant in the environment that factor is not likely to be limiting. The factor cannot be completely eliminated from consideration, however, because of factor interaction.

2 If an organism is known to have narrow limits of tolerance for a factor which is also variable in the environment, that factor merits careful study since it might be limiting.

B Because of the complexity of the aquatic environment, it is not always easy to isolate the factor in the environment that is limiting a particular population. Premature conclusions may result from limited observations of a particular situations. Many important factors may be overlooked unless a sufficiently long period of time is covered to permit the factors to fluctuate within their ranges of possible variation. Much time and money may be wasted on control measures without the real limiting factor ever being discovered or the situation being improved.

C Knowledge of the principle of limiting factors may be used to limit the number of parameters that need to be measured or observed for a particular study. Not all of the numerous physical, chemical and biological parameters need to be measured or observed for each study undertaken. The aims of a pollution survey are not to make and observe long lists of possible limiting factors but to discover which factors are significant, how they bring about their effects, the source or sources of the problem, and what control measures should be taken.

D Specific factors in the aquatic environment determine rather precisely what kinds of organisms will be present in a particular area. Therefore, organisms present or absent can be used to indicate environmental conditions. The diversity of organisms provides a better indication of environmental conditions than does any single species. Strong physio-chemical limiting factors tend to reduce the diversity within a community; more tolerant species are then able to undergo population growth.

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Descriptors: Population, Limiting Factors

ALGAE AND CULTURAL EUTROPHICATION

I INTRODUCTION

This topic covers a wide spectrum of items often depending upon the individual discussing the subject and the particular situation or objectives that he is trying to "prove". Since the writer is not a biologist, these viewpoints are "from the outside-looking in". Any impression of bias is intentional.

A Some Definitions are in Order to Clarify Terminology:

1 Eutrophication - a process or action of becoming eutrophic, an enrichment. To me, this is a dynamic progression characterized by nutrient enrichment. Like many definitions, this one is not precise; stages of eutrophication are classified as olig-, meso-, and eutrophic depending upon increasing degree. Just how a given body of water may be classified is open to question. It depends upon whether you look at quiet or turbulent water, top or bottom samples, season of the year, whether it is a first impression or seasoned judgement. It also depends upon the water use in which you are interested, such as for fishing or waste discharge. The transitional stages are the major problems - it is loud and clear to a trout fisherman encountering carp and scum.

2 Culture

Fostering of plant or animal growth; cultivation of living material and products of such cultivation, both fit. Some degree of control is implied but, the control may have limitations as well as advantages. Human cultural development has fostered human numbers successfully, but, has promoted rapid degradation of his natural environment.

3 Nutrients

A component or element essential to sustain life or living organisms. This includes many different materials, some in gross quantities - others in minor quantities. Deficiency of any one essential item make living impossible. Nutrients needed in large quantities include carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, phosphorus, sulfur and silica. N and P frequently are loosely considered as "the"nutrients because of certain solubility, conversion and "known" behavior characteristics.

4 Algae

A group of nonvascular plants, capable of growth on mineralized nutrients with the aid of chlorophyll and light energy - known as producer organisms, since the food chain is based directly or indirectly upon the organic material produced by algae.

B Now that we have "backed into" the title words via definitions, some of the ramifications of eutrophication, nutrient enrichment, and cultural behavior are possible.

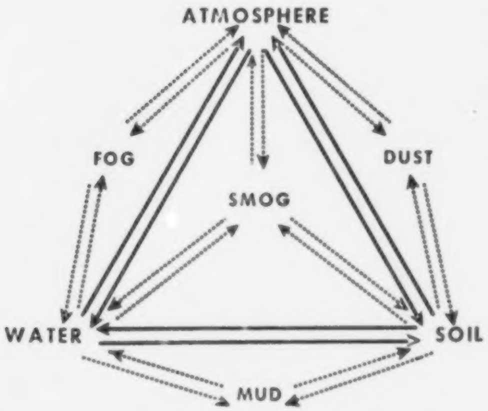
II NUTRIENTS INTERRELATIONSHIPS

A All nutrients are interchangeable in form, solubility, availability, etc. There are no "end" products. We can isolate, cover, convert to gas liquid or solid, oxidize, reduce, complex, dilute, etc. - some time, some place, that nutrient may recycle as part of cultural behavior.

1 Water contact is a major factor in recycle dynamics just as water represents two-thirds or more of cell

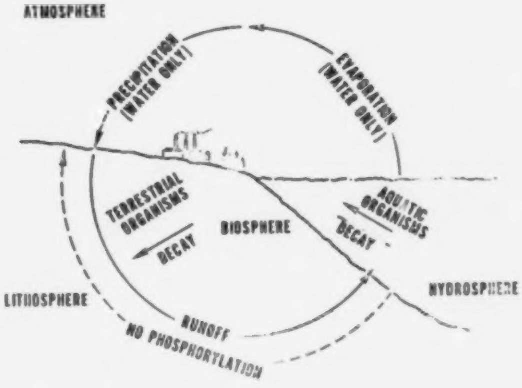
mass and appears to be the medium in which living forms started. Waste disposal interrelationships (Figure 1) suggests physical interrelationships of soil, air and water. The wet apex of this triangle is the basis for life. It's difficult to isolate water from the soil or atmosphere - water contact means solution of available nutrients.

WASTE DISPOSAL INTERRELATIONSHIPS


ATMOSPHERE
FOG
DUST
SMOG
WATER
SOIL
MUD

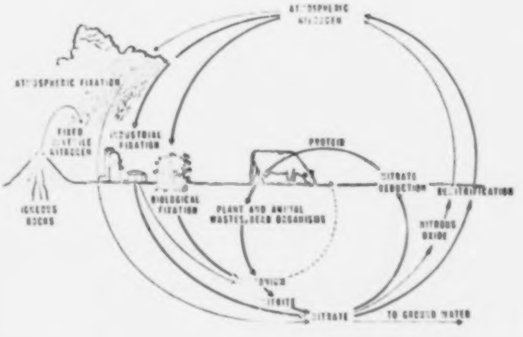
2 Figure 2 takes us into the biosphere (1) via the soluble element cycle. This refers mainly to phosphorus interchange. Phosphorus of geological origin may be solubilized in water, used by plants or animals and returned to water. Natural movement is toward the ocean. Less phosphorus returns by water transport. Phosphorus does not vaporize; hence, atmospheric transport occurs mainly as windblown dust. Man and geological upheaval, partially reverse the flow of phosphorus toward the ocean sink.

SOLUBLE ELEMENT CYCLE


ATMOSPHERE
PRECIPITATION (WATER ONLY)
EVAPORATION (WATER ONLY)
TERRESTRIAL ORGANISMS
DECAY
BIOSPHERE
AQUATIC ORGANISMS
DECAY
LITHOSPHERE
HYDROSPHERE
RUNOFF
NO PHOSPHORYLATION

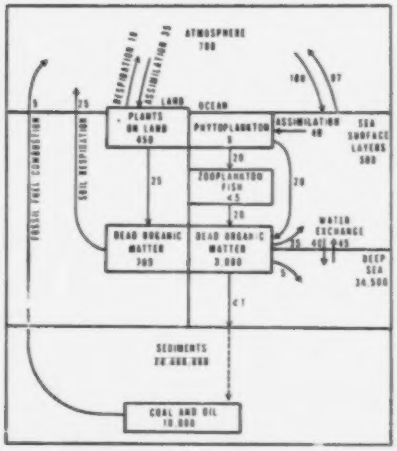
3 The nitrogen cycle starts with elemental nitrogen in the atmosphere. It can be converted to combined form by electrical discharge, certain bacteria and algae, some plants and by industrial fixation. Nitrogen gas thus may go directly into plant form or be fixed before entry. Denitrification occurs mainly via saprophytes. (Figure 3) Industrial fixation is a relatively new contribution to eutrophication.

NITROGEN CYCLE


ATMOSPHERIC NITROGEN
ATMOSPHERIC FIXATION
FIXED VOLATILE NITROGEN
INDUSTRIAL FIXATION
PROTEIN
NITRATE REDUCTION
DENITRIFICATION
IGNEOUS ROCKS
BIOLOGICAL FIXATION
PLANT AND ANIMAL WASTES, DEAD ORGANISMS
NITROUS OXIDE
AMMONIA
NITRITE
NITRATE
TO GROUND WATER

4 **Carbon Conversions** (Figure 4) show most of the carbon in the form of geological carbonate (1) but bicarbonate and CO_2 readily are converted to plant cell mass and into other life forms. Note the relatively small fraction of carbon in living mass.

CARBON CIRCULATION IN BIOSPHERE


ATMOSPHERE
700
RESPIRATION 10
ASSIMILATION 35
100
97
LAND
OCEAN
5
25
FOSSIL FUEL COMBUSTION
SOIL RESPIRATION
PLANTS ON LAND
450
PHYTOPLANKTON
5
ASSIMILATION
40
SEA SURFACE LAYERS
500
20
ZOOPLANKTON FISH
<5
25
20
20
WATER EXCHANGE
40 45
35
DEAD ORGANIC MATTER
700
DEAD ORGANIC MATTER
3,000
5
DEEP SEA
34,500
<1
SEDIMENTS
20,000,000
COAL AND OIL
10,000

B Nutrient - Growth Relationships

Nutrient cycles could go on, but, life depends upon a mixture of essential nutrients under favorable conditions. Too much of any significant item in the wrong place may be considered as pollution. Since toxicity is related to chemical concentration, time of exposure and organism sensitivity, too much becomes toxic. If it happens to be too much growth, its a result of eutrophication. 'How much' is generally more important than the 'what'? Both natural and manmade processes lead to biological conversions, to pollution, to eutrophication and to toxicity. Man is the only animal that can concentrate, speed up, invent, or otherwise alter these conversions to make a collossal mess.

1 Life forms have been formulated in terms of elemental or nutrient components many times. The simplest is $C_5H_8O_2N$. A more complex formula is $C_{100}H_{76}O_{80}N_{20}Ca_6Cl_7P_2CuF_2SiMgMn_2K_2NaS_{21}Zn$. This includes 16 elements. More than 30 have been implicated as essential and they still would not "live", unless they were correctly assembled. As a nutrient Mnemonic H. COPKINS - - Mg(r)-CaFe-MoB does fairly well. It also indicates Iodine-I, Iron-Fe, Molybdenum-Mo, and Boron-B that were not included earlier.

2 The Law of Distribution states that "Any given habitat tends to favor all suitable species - any given species tends to be present in all suitable habitats." Selection tends to favor the most suitable species at a given place and time.

3 Liebigs Law of the Minimum, states that "The essential material available in amounts most closely approaching the critical minimum will tend to be the limiting growth factor."

4 Shelfords law recognizes that there will be some low concentration of any nutrient that will not support growth. Some higher concentration will stimulate growth. Each nutrient will have some still higher concentration that will be bacteriostatic or toxic. This has been discussed earlier but was considered in a different manner.

III BIOLOGICAL PROGRESSIONS

The biological "balance" appears to be a very transitory condition in cultural behavior. Man favors production. A steady state "balance" does not persist very long unless energy of the system is too low to permit significant growth. A progression of species where each predominent form thrives for a time, then is displaced by another temporarily favored group is usual. Yearly events in the lawn start with chickweed, then dandelion, plantain, crab grass, rag weed, etc., in successive predominence. Occasionally, more desirable grasses may appear on the lawn. Grass is a selected unstable "culture".

A Figure 3 shows a biological progression (2) following introduction of wastewater in an unnamed stream. Sewage or slime bacteria proliferate rapidly at first followed by ciliates, rotifers, etc.

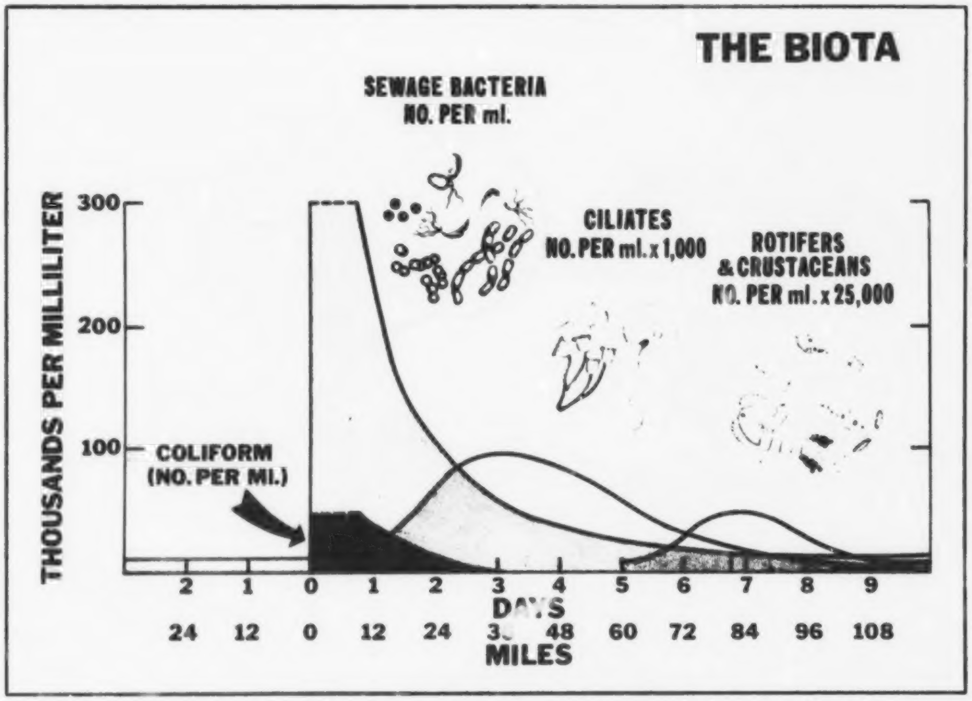


Figure 5. Bacteria thrive and finally become prey of the ciliates, which in turn are food for the rotifers and crustaceans.

B Figure 4 shows another progression of bottom dwelling larva. Here the sequence of organisms changes after wastewater introduction from aquatic insects to sludge worms, midges, sow bugs and then to re-establishment of insects.

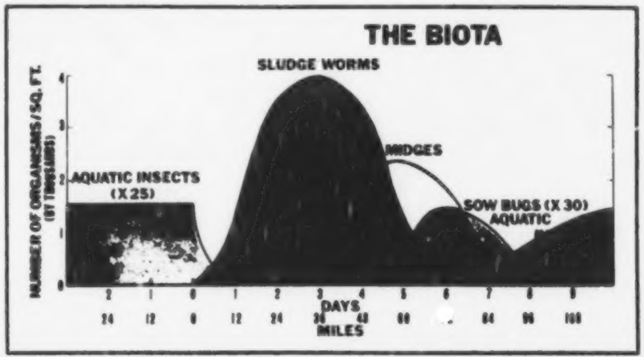
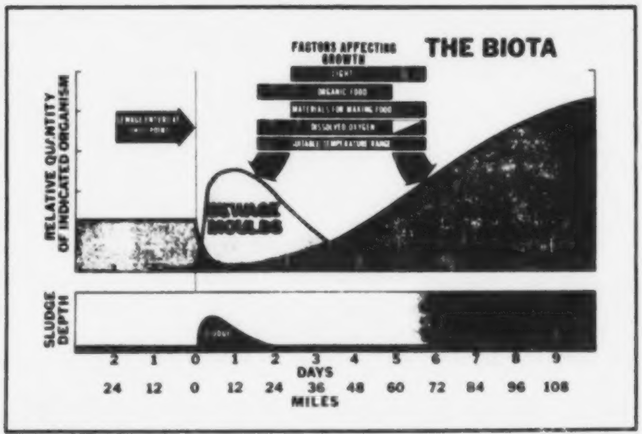


Figure 6. The population curve of Figure 7 is composed of a series of maxima for individual species, each multiplying and dying off as stream conditions vary.

C Another progression after waste introduction changes the biota from an algal culture to sewage moulds with later return to algal predominence.



● Figure 7 **Shortly after sewage discharge, the moulds attain maximum growth. These are associated with sludge deposition shown in the lower curve. The sludge is decomposed gradually; as conditions clear up, algae gain a foothold and multiply.**

Figures 5, 6, and 7 are shown separately only because one visual would be unreadable with all possible progressions on it. There are progressions for fungi, protista, insect larvae, worms, fish, algae, etc. Each species will perform as it may perform. It it cannot compete successfully, it will be replaced by those that can compete under prevailing conditions at the time. Conditions shift rapidly with rapid growth.

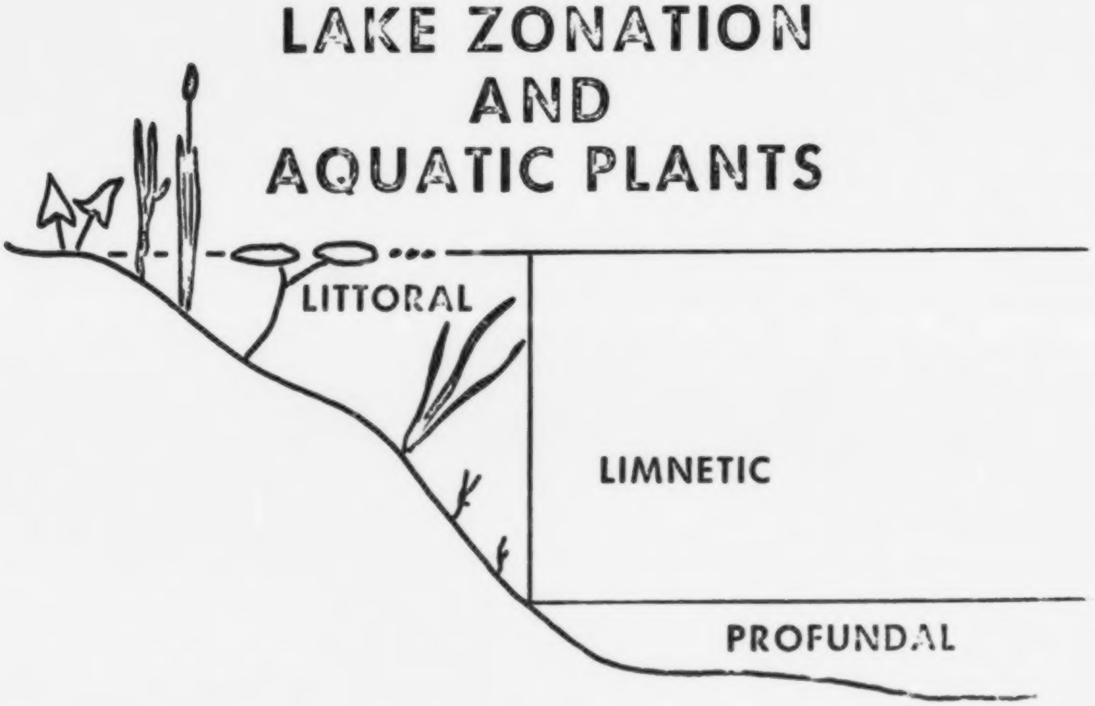
IV The interactions of bacteria or fungi and algae (Figure 8) are particularly significant to eutrophication.

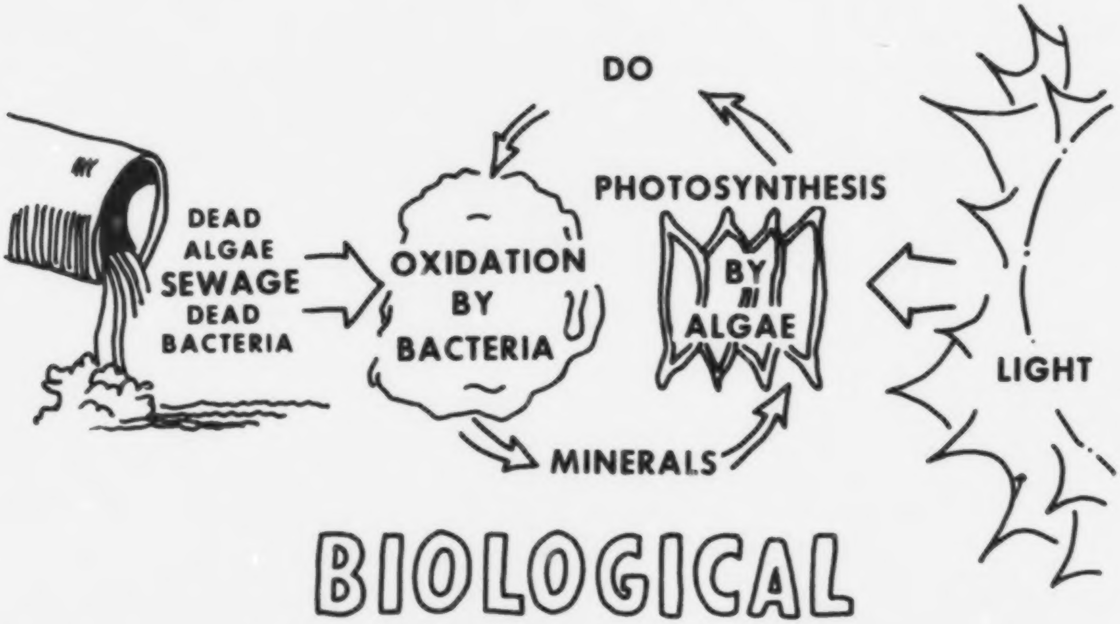
A The bacteria or the saprophytic group among them tend to work on preformed organic materials - pre-existing organics from dead or less favored organisms. Algal cells produce the organics from light energy chlorophyll and mineralized nutrients. This is a happy combination for both: The algae release the oxygen for use by the bacteria while the bacteria release the CO_2 needed by the algae.

Since the algae also acquire CO_2 from the atmosphere, from wastewater and from geological sources, it always ends up with more enrichment of nutrients in the water - more enrichment means more growth and growing organisms eventually clump and deposit. The nature of growth shifts from free growth to rooted forms, starting in the shallows. Another progression occurs (Figures 9 and 10).

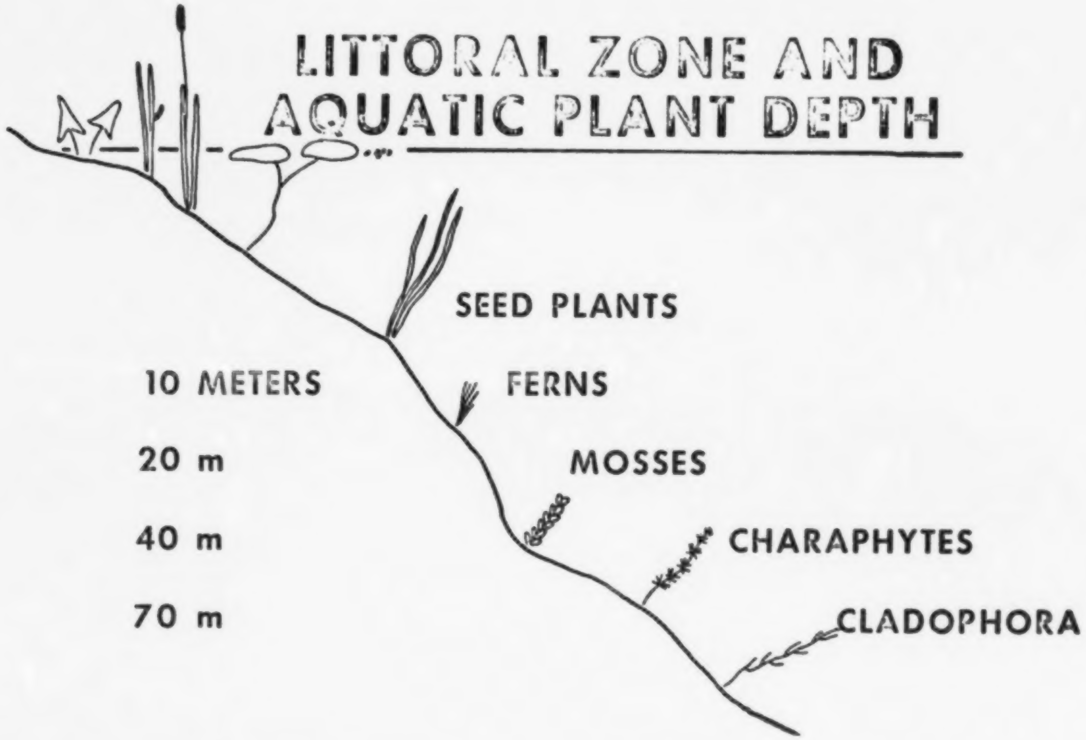
It is this relationship that favors profuse nuisance growth of algae below significant waste discharges. There is a tremendous pool of carbon dioxide available in geological formations and in the air. Transfer to the water is significant and encourages algal productivity and eventual eutrophication of any body of water, but, this does not occur as rapidly as when the water body is super saturated with CO_2 from bacterial decay of wastewater discharges or benthic deposits from them.

LAKE ZONATION AND AQUATIC PLANTS


LITTORAL
LIMNETIC
PROFUNDAL


DO
PHOTOSYNTHESIS
DEAD ALGAE
SEWAGE
DEAD BACTERIA
OXIDATION BY BACTERIA
BY ALGAE
LIGHT
MINERALS

BIOLOGICAL STABILIZATION



B Nitrogen and phosphorus are essential for growth. They also are prominently considered in eutrophication control. Algal cell mass is about 50% carbon, 15% nitrogen and approximately 1% phosphorus not considering luxury uptake in excess of immediate use. Phosphorus is considered as the most controllable limiting nutrient. It's control is complicated by the feedback of P from benthic sediments and surface wash. Phosphorus removal means solids removal. Good clarification is essential to obtain good removal of P. This also means improved removal of other nutrients- a major advantage of the P removal route. Both N & P are easily converted from one form to another; most forms are water soluble.

V SUMMARY

Control of eutrophication is not entirely possible. Lakes must eventually fill with benthic sediments, surface wash and vegetation. Natural processes eventually cause filling. Increased nutrient discharges from added activities grossly increase filling rate.

A We produce more nutrients per capita per day in the United States than in other nations and much more today than 100 years ago. More people in population centers accentuate the problem.

B Technology is available to remove most of the nutrients from the water carriage system.

1 This technology will not be used unless water is recognized to be in short supply.

2 It will not be used unless we place a realistic commodity value on the water and are willing to pay for cleanup for reuse purposes.

C Removal must be followed by isolation of acceptable gases to the atmosphere acceptable solids into the soil for reuse or storage. Water contact cannot be prevented, but it must be limited or the enrichment of the water body is hastened.

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This outline was prepared by F.J. Ludzack, Chemist, National Training Center, MOTD, OWPO, USEPA, Cincinnati, Ohio 45268.

Descriptors: Algae, Eutrophication

CONTROL OF PLANKTON IN SURFACE WATERS

I PHILOSOPHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

A Plankton growths are as natural to aquatic areas as green plants are to land areas and respond to the same stimuli.

B Man is currently harnessing plankton forms to accomplish useful work.

1 For generation of oxygen

a Stabilization of waste waters in oxidation ponds

b Oxygen recovery from CO_2 in space travel

2 For augmentation of food supply

a Fish ponds

b Nitrogen fixation in rice growing

c Harvesting of algae for direct use as food

C A growing knowledge of the nutrient requirements of plankton organisms will lead to a more enlightened approach to ways and means of controlling their growth when desirable.

II CLASSICAL METHODS OF CONTROL

A Chemical

1 Inorganic

a Copper sulfate is used most extensively. It is most effective in preventive rather than curative treatment. It has long lasting effects in soft waters but is short-lived in hard waters due to precipitation of the Cu^{++} as a basic carbonate. The precipitated material accumulates in bottom muds and is toxic to certain benthal forms, some of which serve as important fish food.

Dosages are normally based on the alkalinity of the water. When alkalinity is < 40 mg/l, the recommended dosage is 0.3 mg/l of $CuSO_4 \cdot 5H_2O$ in total volume of water. When alkalinity is > 40 mg/l, recommended dosage is 2.0 mg/l in surface foot of water.

b Chlorine is preferable to copper sulfate in the control of certain forms of algae. However, it is difficult to apply in most instances and is very short-lived due to photo catalytic decomposition of $HClO \rightarrow HCl + O$.

2 Organic - Numerous organic compounds have been evaluated, especially in relation to control of blue-green algae. "Phygon", 2, 3-dichloronaphthoquinone, has been field tested but is too specific in its action for general application.

III ECOLOGICAL CONTROL

A Theory - Ecological control is based upon the principle of preventing or restricting growth by limiting one or more of the essential requirements. This is an application of Liebig's Law of the Minimum. The logical avenues of control are as follows:

1 Elimination of light

2 Limiting nutrient materials

B Light - Many cities have solved the problem of plankton growths by the use of covered reservoirs, underground and elevated. Concurrently, they have solved contamination problems created by birds and atmospheric fallout. In open reservoirs, some success has been obtained by limiting light through the use of a film of activated carbon.

C Nutrients - Since phytoplankton (algae) serve as the base of the food chain, knowledge concerning their nutrient requirements is required for ecological control, when limitation of light is impractical. The nutrient requirements of phytoplankton are as follows:

1 Nature of - The major nutrients are:

a Carbon dioxide

b Nitrogen - ammonia and nitrates (also N_2)

c Phosphorus - phosphates.

Minor nutrients are:

d Sulfur - sulfates

e Potassium

f Trace inorganics - magnesium, iron, etc.

g Trace organics-vitamins, amino acids

2 Sources of - See Fig. 1

a Atmosphere

b Groundwater - springs

c Storm water or surface runoff

d Waste waters - domestic sewage and industrial wastes.

3 Significance of each major nutrient

a Carbon dioxide - See Fig. 2
Usually present in great abundance. Rapidly replenished from atmosphere and bacterial decomposition of organic matter. No reasonable possibility of human control. Nature, however, does provide some control through elevated pH levels if carbon dioxide becomes depleted rapidly.

b Nitrogen - Like land plants, certain algal forms prefer nitrogen in the form of $NH_3(NH_4^+)$ and others prefer it in the form of NO_3^-. Both forms often become depleted during the growing season and reach maximum concentrations during the winter season. A level of 0.30 mg/l of inorganic nitrogen at the time of the spring turnover is considered to be the maximum permissible level.

All natural surface waters are saturated with nitrogen gas. This serves as a source of nitrogen for bacteria and algae capable of fixing it.

c Phosphorus - A key element in all plant and animal nutrition. The critical level is considered to be 0.01 mg/l at the time of the spring turnover. Phosphorus is needed to sustain nitrogen fixing forms.

D Practice Of

1 Exclusion of light - Practice well established in distribution system reservoirs but impractical on large storage reservoirs.

2 Nutrient limitation

a Control of surface run-off quality

1) Agricultural
2) Other

b Diversion of sewage plant effluents

1) Madison, Wisconsin
2) Detroit Lakes, Minnesota
3) Pending - State College, Pa.

c Tertiary treatment of sewage

1) Nitrogen removal - Because of the several forms is very difficult.

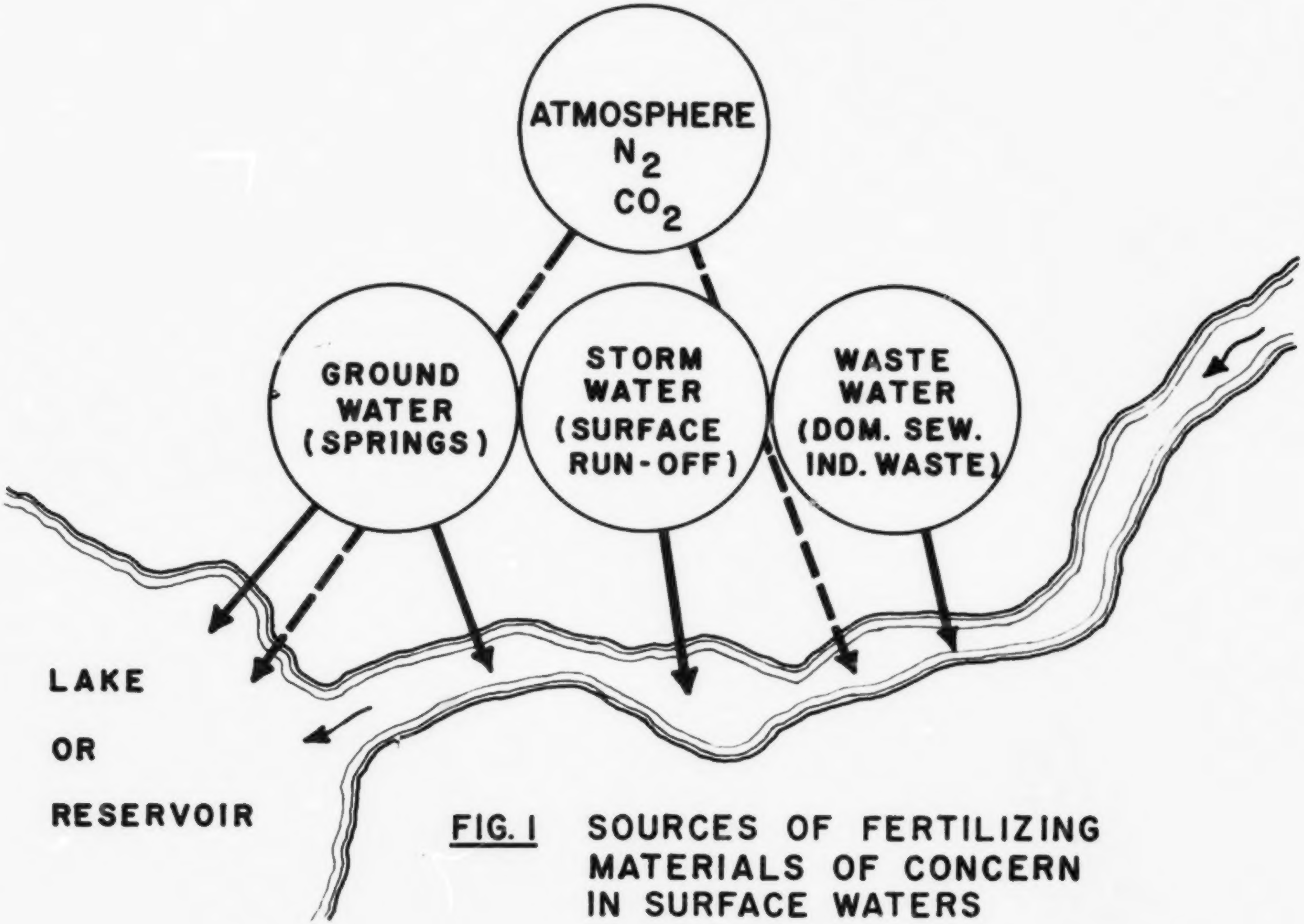
ATMOSPHERE
N_2
CO_2
GROUND WATER (SPRINGS)
STORM WATER (SURFACE RUN-OFF)
WASTE WATER (DOM. SEW. IND. WASTE)
LAKE
OR
RESERVOIR

FIG. I SOURCES OF FERTILIZING MATERIALS OF CONCERN IN SURFACE WATERS

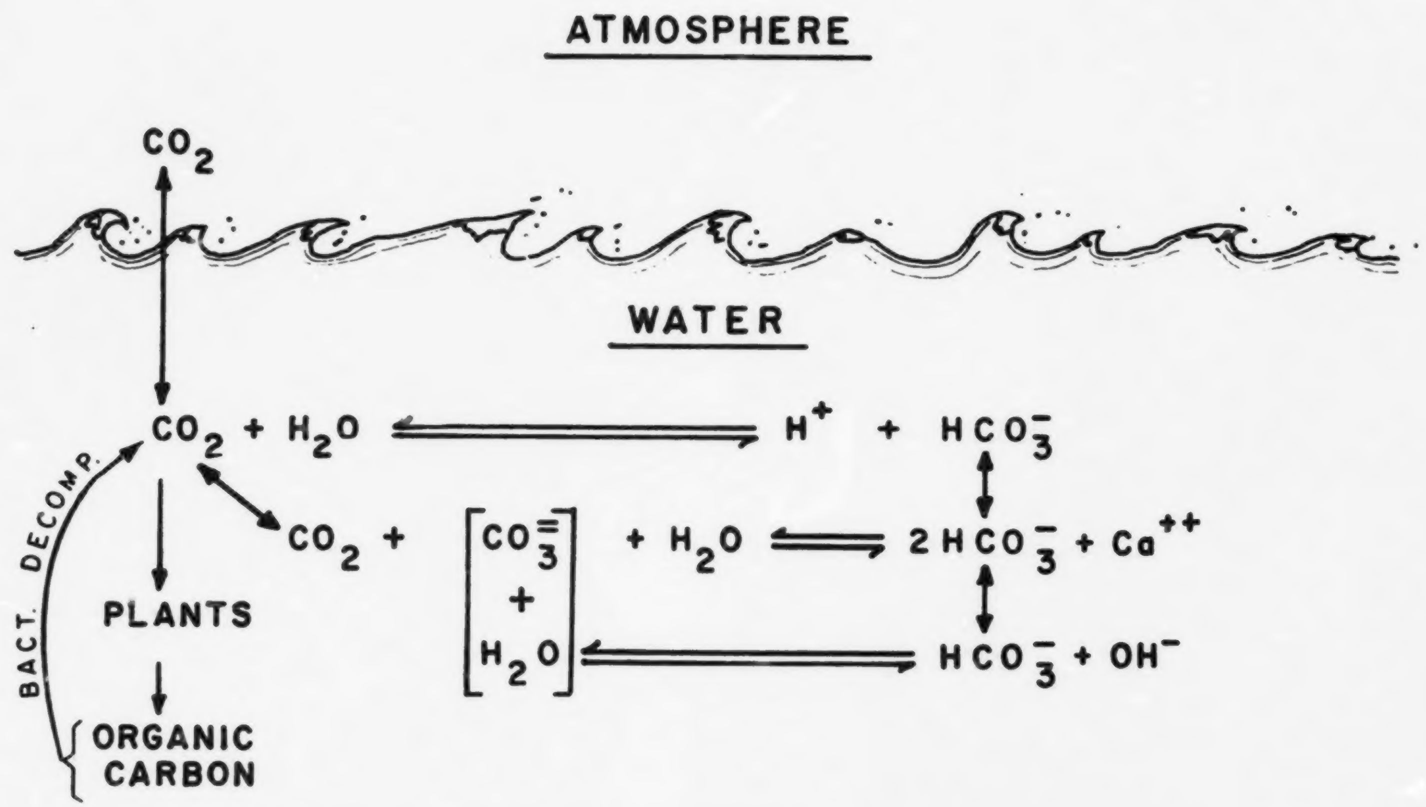
ATMOSPHERE
CO_2
WATER
$CO_2 + H_2O \rightleftharpoons H^+ + HCO_3^-$
$CO_2 + [CO_3^= + H_2O] + H_2O \rightleftharpoons 2HCO_3^- + Ca^{++}$
$[H_2O] \rightleftharpoons HCO_3^- + OH^-$
PLANTS
ORGANIC CARBON
BACT. DECOMP.

FIG. 2 CARBON DIOXIDE - BICARBONATE - CARBONATE - HYDROXIDE RELATIONSHIPS IN NATURAL WATERS

Also, may be unsuccessful in control unless phosphorus is controlled, too, because of nitrogen fixing forms.

2) Phosphorus removal - Phosphorus can be effectively removed by coagulation methods employing lime, alum or ferric salts. It is expensive and no one has proven its value beyond laboratory experiments.

d By Biological Engineering

Laboratory studies have shown that effluents essentially free of plant fertilizing elements can be produced by biological treatment of wastes with proper ratios of C to N and P.

3 Experiences

- a Madison
- b Detroit Lakes
- c State College
- d Lake Winnisquam, N.H.

E Practical Aspects

- 1 Diversion
- 2 Nutrient control

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This outline was prepared by C.N. Sawyer, Director of Research, Metcalf & Eddy Engineers, Boston, Massachusetts.

Descriptors: Algicides, Eutrophication

CONTROL OF INTERFERENCE ORGANISMS IN WATER SUPPLIES

I NECESSITY FOR DATA

A Information on the number, kinds, and effects of interference organisms in a particular water supply is essential for determining adequate control measures.

B Collection of the biological data should be on a regular routine basis.

C Interpretation of data requires information on relationship of number and kinds of organisms to the effects produced.

D It is generally more satisfactory to anticipate and prevent problems due to these organisms than it is to cope with them later.

II CONTROL IN RAW WATER SUPPLY

A Use of algicides

1 Application of an algicide is to prevent or destroy excessive growths of algae which occur as blooms, mats or a high concentration of plankton.

2 Algicide may be applied to control even low concentrations of certain algae such as Synura.

3 Copper sulfate is the only algicide in common use at present.

a Application may be by dusting, spraying or dissolving from a porous container over all or part of the water surface, or by continuous feeding of the algicide at the intake of the reservoir or pre-treatment basin.

b Effective dosage depends upon the Alkalinity and pH and temperature of the water and the amount and kinds of algae to be controlled. Bartch states that the following arbitrary dosages have been found to be generally effective and safe:

M.O. alkalinity > 50 p.p.m. = 2 p.p.m. in the surface foot of water only (5.4 pounds per acre).

M.O. alkalinity < 50 p.p.m. = 0.3 p.p.m. in total volume of water (0.9 pound per acre foot).

c Application of copper sulfate should be limited to the minimum effective dosage because of its corrosive properties, and its toxicity to fish and other aquatic animals.

4 Other algicides

a Promising types include inorganic salts, organic salts, rosin amines, antibiotics, quinones, substituted hydrocarbons, quaternary ammonium compounds, amide derivatives and phenols. Cuprichloramine which is a combination of copper, chlorine and ammonia, and also chlorine dioxide have shown promise as general algicides.

b For domestic water supplies they will have to be not only economically feasible but nontoxic to animal life and to green plants other than algae.

c Due to higher costs they will probably be used only when adequate plankton and algal records are kept, which would permit early localized treatment.

d Algicides selectively toxic to the particular algae of greatest significance would be useful.

5 Mechanical removal or spreading out to permit rapid drying may be the simplest way of handling massive growths which are detached and washed ashore.

6 Turbidity due to silt keeps down the plankton population. In shallow reservoirs, fish which stir up the bottom mud will aid in keeping turbidity due to silt high.

7 Provisions for keeping the amounts of nutrients to a minimum may be emphasized more in the future.

8 For new reservoirs, clearing the site

of vegetation and organic debris before filling will reduce the algal nutrients. Steep rather than gentle slopes will reduce the areas which allow marginal growths to occur.

III CONTROL IN TREATMENT PLANT

A Coagulation and sedimentation

1 When well regulated they often will remove 90 per cent or more of the plankton.

2 With low plankton counts, a coagulant aid may be required.

3 Frequent removal of sludge from the basins, especially during the warm seasons may help to reduce tastes and odors originating from decomposing organic sediment.

B Sand filtration

1 Both slow and rapid sand filters tend to reduce the plankton count of the effluent by 90 per cent or more, when well regulated.

2 For rapid filters, accumulated plankton can be removed or reduced by surface scraping and by back washing.

C Micro-straining

1 This involves the passing of the water through a finely woven fabric of stainless steel. All but the smaller plankton organisms tend to be removed from the water. It is being used in some treatment plants in England and elsewhere.

D Activated carbon

1 The slightly soluble, organic, taste and odor compounds tend to be readily adsorbed by the activated carbon. It is probably most often applied prior to coagulation, but may be used prior to filtration or in the raw water.

E Chlorination

1 Treatment with chlorine is practiced primarily to destroy pathogenic organisms. The dosages commonly used are toxic also to many algae and to some of the other groups of aquatic organisms. However, dead as well as living organisms are often capable of causing tastes and odors and of clogging filters.

F The depth and position of the intake for entrance of raw water into the treatment plant may determine the kinds and amount of plankton which will be drawn into the plant. Plankton algae generally are more concentrated near the surface of the water in lakes and reservoirs.

IV CONTROL IN DISTRIBUTION SYSTEM

A Maintenance of a chlorine residual controls the chlorine sensitive organisms.

B Other pesticides such as cuprichloramine have been used in attempts to control the resistant organisms such as worms, nematodes and copepod eggs.

C Flushing of infested portions of the system, especially dead ends may be practiced.

D Covering of treated water reservoirs to prevent the entrance of light will stop the growth of algae.

E Organisms associated with pipe corrosion are probably the most active when the water itself is corrosive.

F Mechanical cleaning of the distribution system may be an effective but expensive method of reducing infestations of attached organisms.

V SUMMARY

A Adequate control is dependent upon adequate procedures for detecting and recording of organisms.

B Control may involve the following:

1 Use of an algicide or pesticide.

2 Mechanical cleaning of distribution lines, settling basins, and filters, screens, intake channels and reservoir margins.

3 Modification of coagulation, filtration, chemical treatment or location of raw water intake.

4 Use of adsorbent, such as activated carbon, for taste and odor substances.

5 Modification of reservoir to reduce the opportunities for massive growths.

   a By covering treated water reservoirs

   b By increasing the depth of the water

   c By eliminating shallow marginal areas

   d By reducing the amount of fertilizing nutrients entering the reservoir

   e By encouraging a balanced development of the aquatic organisms

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This outline was prepared by C. M. Palmer, former Aquatic Biologist, Biological Treatment Research Activities, Cincinnati Water Research Laboratory, FWPCA, SEC.

Descriptor: Nuisance Organisms

THE BIOLOGY OF PIPES, CONDUITS, AND CANALS

I INTRODUCTION

Water moving in man made structures of metal and concrete offers another niche for over 100 types of aquatic organisms from protozoa, to five centimeter clams.

Unfortunately these structures are planned, constructed, and managed by people who are unaware of the biological potential for mischief and this becomes translated into often severe economic liabilities.

II CRUSTACEA

A Copepods

Often appear in finished water and clearwells, because the minute eggs pass rapid sand filters.

B Isopods

Are often present in numbers up to 100 per meter of conduit. Their presence may go undetected unless special sampling procedures are used, such as foam plugs sent hydraulically through a line with a sieving device at the other end to capture the dislodged organisms.

In England, where the problem appears to be more acute, it is associated with surface water sources and rapid sand filters. Apparently only a chance introduction of an individual is needed, then populations propagate within the mains and smaller lines.

III MOLLUSCS

Bivalves (clams and mussels) are often more spectacular when invading a water distribution system because of their shell size and greater biomass.

A Life History

The problem here relates to the "D" stage larvae (see Fig. 1) or veliger (around 200 microns in size) which is free living and thereby passes screens and obstructions along with the water mass. The adults live in or on the substrate and during breeding periods billions of these tiny veligers are discharged into the water currents. All hydro installations thereby are very vulnerable to an infestation of clams.

B Veliger to Byssiger

Notice in figure one how the larval mollusc changes from a swimming and/or floating plankter to a byssus attached benthic form. This life history (shared by none of our native bivalves) graphically demonstrates how the numerous veligers in the water are drawn in with the intake water and dispersed through the system. The transitional stage, the pediveliger, can opt for another substrate if the first is unsuitable, for it still retains the velum for free movement while having a ciliated notched foot for climbing and exploring the substrate. When the velum is finally lost as development proceeds the byssiger can still explore about by foot while retaining elastic anchored life lines. A study of this figure explains the severe mechanical problem in stopping water by heavy shelled adults.

C Pest Species

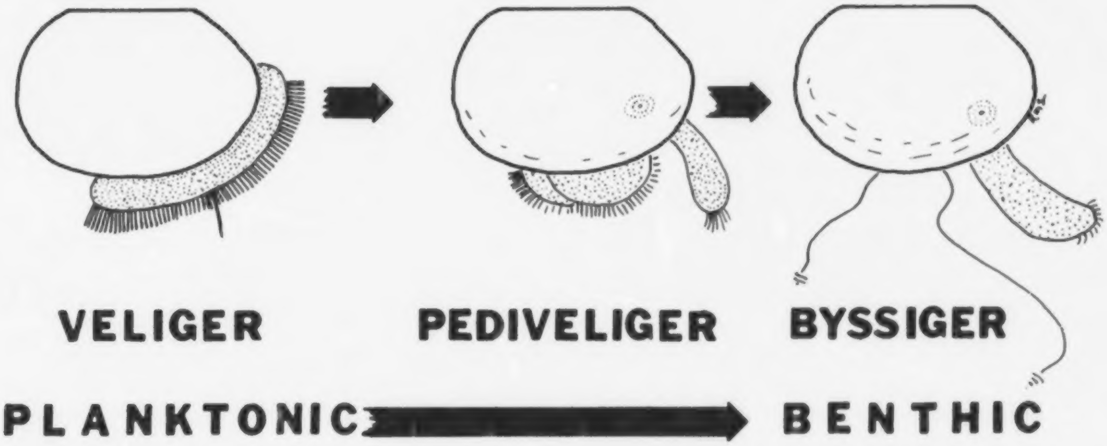
The worst are usually exotic, that is imported, and exotics are nearly always bad whether it be plants or animals.

1 Dreissena polymorpha the Zebra Clam.

Not yet in North America but has created many problems in Europe where it took over a century to spread.

2 Corbicula manilensis the Asian Clam, or Good Luck Clam. (Figures 2 and 3).

Initially it became a problem in the 40's in California, and now it is found


VELIGER
PEDIVELIGER
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PLANKTONIC
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Figure 1 D-Stage

Bivalve Larval Stages (app. 200 microns)

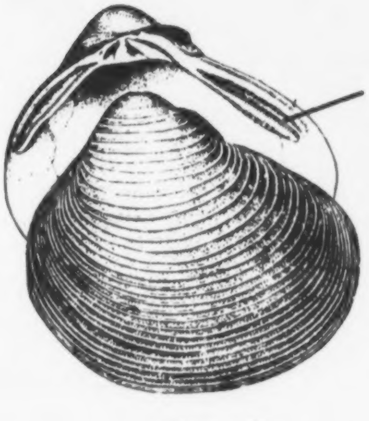

Figure 2

Corbicula or Exotic Asian Clam
Approximately 6 cm maximum size. Notice serrated "teeth".

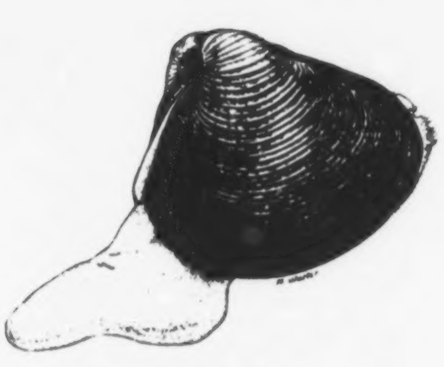

Figure 3

Corbicula or Exotic Asian Clam
Approximately 6 cm maximum size. Notice heavy corrugated outer shell.

in most North American drainage systems. Literature on this species is voluminous. It has been a severe pest in TVA steam plants and numerous water diversion schemes. Most probably it was introduced through immigrants from Canton, China. In its native range it is of value as a commercial food species.

3 Limnoperna fortunei

A serious pest in Hong Kong water supplies.

4 Modiolus striatulus

A serious pest in Calcutta water supplies.

D As Morton points out these species are problems in water supplies and distribution systems because they are/or have a

1 Opportunist
2 Grow fast
3 Long breeding season
4 High reproductive potential
5 Free swimming larval phase (the veliger).
6 Quick to colonize all available substrates.

E Treatment and prevention has largely (and successfully) been limited to chlorine.

IV Pipe Ecology

A pipe is simply a place to live.

A Habitat

Even under great velocities a pipe's inner surface offers a place of attachment. Rough surfaces afford micro-habitats.

B Niche

Even though potable water may be very low in nutrients and particulate organic matter, the constant velocity makes it a rich food supply. Predators may be completely absent.

C It may be dark inside but a link to the outside photosynthetic world of food plants and decomposing bacteria (bacteria are food to a variety of pipe dwelling animals) is in constant motion.

V In conclusion it is no surprise to a biologist to discover a variety and abundance of organisms (micro and macro in size) well adapted to living in just about any pumped water supply, even when lines are subject to chlorine.

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This outline was prepared by R. M. Sinclair, National Training Center, MOTD, OWPO, USEPA, Cincinnati, Ohio 45268.

Descriptors: Molluscs, Isopods, Fouling, Nuisance Organisms, Pipelines

SAN FRANCISCO EXPERIENCE WITH NUISANCE ORGANISMS

I INTRODUCTION

In order to have a clear picture of the problems in the San Francisco Water Supply system by nuisance organisms an understanding of the basic system should be helpful.

The largest quantity of water is produced in the Hetch Hetchy watershed, located in Yosemite National Park. This water is transmitted some 150 miles by tunnel and pipe to the San Francisco Bay Area, where the water not sold enroute is discharged into Crystal Springs Reservoir. From Crystal Springs Reservoir, water either flows by gravity to the lower elevations of the San Francisco Peninsula and the City proper, or is pumped to nearby San Andreas Reservoir. This latter reservoir supplies the higher areas. The capacity of Hetch Hetchy reservoir is 117 billion gallons, Crystal Springs 22.5 billion gallons and San Andreas 6 billion gallons. All water flowing from the local reservoirs is chlorinated and fluoridated along with the customary copper sulphate treatment for algae control of surface waters.

Two other parts of the system should be mentioned, although these waters have not been involved particularly with nuisance organisms. On the East Side of San Francisco Bay the San Francisco Water Department owns and operates two large reservoirs, San Antonio and Calaveras. The water from these reservoirs passes through the 80 m.g.d. dual media, Sunol Valley Water Filtration Plant capable of complete treatment.

All watersheds tributary to Crystal Springs and San Andreas Reservoirs are owned by the Water Department and only seven watershed keepers live on the 25,000 acres. The other reservoirs are quite remote and human activity is small compared to the area involved.

The distribution and transmission system within San Francisco consists of eighteen pressure zones; ten large covered reservoirs with capacities ranging from 2.5 to 176.7 million gallons; 1,163 miles of pipe and the usual pumping stations, valves, etc. The goal of this presentation is to describe the problems caused by nuisance organisms in the San Francisco system and briefly relate what was done about them, if anything.

The following described outbreaks of nuisance organisms occurred during the period 1934 to the present.

II AQUATIC ACTINOMYCETES

During Spring of 1956 there appeared in the distribution system increasing incidents of earthy taste and odor complaints, many by our staff. Even the management was of the opinion that the water was becoming poorer and poorer; so a graduate student in microbiology was hired for the summer to investigate the possibility of actinomycetes being the source. Positive results were obtained from many samples of water but a definite pattern could not be established that would implicate any part of the system.

Before finite data could be established the need to raise our chlorine residuals to combat persistant coliforms became our overwhelming problem, and in the course of events chlorine taste complaints took the place of earthy and woody complaints. No doubt the chlorine residuals of 1mg/l and better distribution maintenance with regards to water quality were responsible for the control of these organisms.

Those having complaints of this nature are referred to the many articles in the Journal by Professor J.K.G. Silvey and his coworkers. (1)

III BRYOZOAN

This outbreak occurred during the Spring of 1956.

A routine complaint was turned over to the Department Laboratory for inspection. A customer had complained that little black specks were caught in her nylons after washing. Inspection showed that they were coming from the tap and flushing of nearby fire hydrant produced clusters of the black organisms up to the size of a quarter.

The black specks were identified as statoblasts of Bryozoan, and Whipples description of a Brooklyn Water Department outbreak in 1897 really shook the staff up. His description states, "In a number of instances this material stopped up the taps, and even large pipes were choked". (2) Great black masses of these statoblasts could be imagined blocking our pipes and valves.

The area for several blocks around was flushed until no further statoblasts were observed. In spite of a close inspection of other parts of the system, including distribution and impounding reservoirs no additional organisms were found. In fact these Bryozoans have never been encountered again.

In the laboratory, attempts were made to germinate the statoblasts to no avail and it was assumed that the organisms were dead. Several months later a test tube of statoblasts in water which had laid on a table formed colonies.

Although the San Francisco Water Supply has experienced only the one outbreak, Bryozoans are a common nuisance in water systems. Prokopovich and Hebert (3) described a problem in California's Delta-Mendota Canal and Whipple also described outbreaks in Hartford, Connecticut and Boston, Massachusetts.

IV CHLOROPHYTA: BULBOCHAETA AND SPIROGRYRA

Although plankton net catches from the large Hetch Hetchy reservoir contain high counts of Crustacea the reservoir has never required copper sulphate treatment.

During November 1964 a number of complaints from the Department wholesale customers were received, stating water meters were clogging with a growth. At the time both Hetch Hetchy and Calaveras Reservoirs were supplying the Bay Division Lines and Department personnel jumped to the conclusion that the growth must be originating in Calaveras Reservoir which was not filtered at this time and routinely needs copper sulphate treatment. Accordingly, Calaveras was shut down and all customers were supplied from Hetch Hetchy, but meters continued to clog. Further investigations were made and the trouble traced to the source which was a short section of the Tuolumne River where the Hetch Hetchy water ran in the river a distance of twelve miles before entering the tunnel and pipe system.

As this section of the system was in the Yosemite National Park, permission to treat parts of the river with copper sulphate was requested of the Department of Interior, and tests were run at the nearby Moccasin Fish Hatchery. These tests showed treatment could be effective without killing trout.

Prior to the conclusion of the above tests a telegram was received from Washington which read "Technicians this Service and Bureau of Sport Fisheries and Wildlife consider knowledge about use of the chemical inadequate at this time to insure preservation of ecological conditions based on potential threat to the river's native aquatic organisms and possible fish kill. We cannot grant approval for this program."

As the purpose of the treatment was to kill some of the native aquatic organisms, the project to copper sulphate the river was abandoned without argument, but two small regulating reservoirs were treated.

Luckily the organisms disappeared throughout the system and have not reoccurred. Since the above incident, this section of river has been by-passed by a tunnel and the water from Hetch Hetchy Reservoir enters the pipe and tunnel system directly.

V HYDROIDES

Within the boundries of the City and County of San Francisco lies the 2-½ billion gallon Lagana de la Merced or as the Water Department calls it, Lake Merced.

Lake Merced, formerly connected with the Pacific Ocean by a Channel which was closed sometime between 1869 and 1894 is now a freshwater lake and was used for domestic water purposes from 1895 to 1932 at which time it was placed on a standby basis. The lake has characteristic freshwater fauna, except for five species of definitely marine affinities. The organism which could give trouble in the system if this source were ever used again is Cordylophora lacustris (Allman) (Coelenterata Hydroidea). (4)

Hydroides were first noticed by the author when the City's boating concessionaire complained of growths covering the bottoms of his row boats. This was solved by using a non-fouling paint, but one cannot help speculating on the problems which would be encountered if an earthquake severed the normal water supply lines to the city, in which case Lake Merced would be the sole source until repairs were made.

An experimental microstrainer was installed to treat water from Crystal Springs Reservoir in conjunction with coliform investigations in 1963 and after a number of months of operation hydroides established themsleves in the tanks. Although this organism did not cause operational difficulties, it was unsightly and the tanks had to be manually cleaned. Strangely, these organisms have never become established in the distribution system even though there are distribution tanks and reservoirs in the system with approximately the same light intensity. It can only be assumed that the chlorine residual is keeping the hydroides from becoming a problem.

VI MYRIOPHYLLUM OR EURASIAN WATERMILFOIL

Over a number of years this fern like plant growth has been a problem in a 13.5 million gallon open distribution reservoir within the City of San Francisco. Every two to three years the growth would be so abundant that the weed would require harvesting by dragging large rakes across the reservoir. Of course, the solution was to clean, line and roof the reservoir which was done in 1960.

Myriophyllum has now thoroughly established itself in San Andreas Reservoir and because of its size, 550 acres, it is impossible to control it by dragging. The only effective control has been to lower the reservoir and let the banks dry out killing the surface growth but, of course, not the roots and the following year if the reservoir water level remains relatively constant the cycle is repeated.

With the construction of an 80 m.g.d. water treatment plant employing coagulation, sedimentation and dual media filtration, problems are anticipated when the stems fragment break off and either settle in the basins or mat the filters thus shortening the filter runs. This will at least transfer the problem from the water consumer to ourselves. At the present many consumers find the small fern like leaves in their tap water and become most unhappy when told they are not receiving filtered water and there is nothing that can be done to resolve the problem; although if the problem seems severe and localized, the mains in the area are flushed.

This summer some experiments are to be performed utilizing a blanket of air bubbles rising around the intake structure in an attempt to keep the floating debris from being sucked into the intake adits.

San Francisco is not alone with this problem as the Watermilfoil has established itself in reservoirs throughout the country. The TVA project has fought the problem for over ten years. If you are confronted with this weed and your management asks where it came from, Smith of the Vector Control Branch TVA states, "We suspect that the original TVA milfoil infestation in Peny River embayment of Watts Bar Reservoir started either intentionally or otherwise from a misplaced fish bowl plant. From such a modest beginning, it thrived but remained unnoticed until its amazing spread began to interfere with fishing and boating.

Within a very short time (probably 3 to 5 years) it embraced about 1,500 acres." (5)

VII PLANKTON

This group of organisms gives trouble in almost any unfiltered surface supply by being observed by the consumer as a white swimming speck in a glass of water; by dying off in the distribution piping and adding to the organic load or, as has been found in San Francisco, protecting coliform bacteria from the action of chlorine. The author presented a paper before this Association in 1966 detailing this problem wherein Cyclops, Daphnia, etc. were so protecting the coliform bacteria that 5 tubes positive could be obtained from samples which had chlorine contact times of 2 hours at a free residual of 1.4 mg/l. (6)

To the present time this problem continues and laboratory tests confirm the original hypothesis. Since the publication of the original paper, discussions with the operators of water systems similar to San Francisco's also support this thinking.

VIII SLIME ORGANISMS

Hetch Hetchy water began to flow into the San Francisco Water System in October 1934, carrying a flow of 45 m.g.d. Part of this flow, 16 m.g.d., was diverted into a 36-inch wrought iron pipe that had been laid in 1887.

Three weeks after this diversion the carrying capacity started to drop off at the rate of 0.2 m.g.d. After another three week period the flow decreased from 16.2 to 13.6 m.g.d. a capacity loss of 16 per cent. Tests failed to indicate any air pockets or other obstructions along the line and in March 1935 the line was opened for inspection. A slimy, gelatinous growth was found, light brown in color covering the entire inner surface of the pipe from 1/8 to 1/4 inch thick.

Microscopic examination showed this growth to contain the iron bacteria Crenothrix and the sulphur bacteria Beggiatoa.

Experiments were performed utilizing 4-inch pipes, varying flows and chemical dosages. Hydrated lime to raise the pH of the water to 10; and copper sulphate treatment did not produce beneficial results. Treating the water with 1-$\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of ammonia and 6 lb. of chlorine per m.g. was effective in controlling the growth.

A large chlorination plant was then built and growths have been controlled since by this treatment with the only change being the use of chlorine alone. (7, 8) This use of chlorine alone has been effective probably due to the higher flows of 100 - 275 m.g.d. now required by consumption. Generally only a slight taste or odor of chlorine is encountered.

At least once since the initial start of treatment an outbreak of slime has occurred and this was caused by lowering the chlorine dosage below the required level for 100% control.

A visual inspection was made by shutting down the tunnel system. This inspection showed strings of mucoid slime hanging from the tunnel ceiling. Heavy chlorination cleaned the tunnel and maintenance of .5 to .75 mg/l chlorine residual keeps the tunnel system clean of these slime organisms.

IX FRESHWATER SPONGES

During July 1961 water being withdrawn from San Andreas Reservoir through Outlet No. 3 had a very objectionable odor. The outlet system was drained and visual inspection showed large freshwater sponges growing on the walls of the 72-inch bitumastic lined steel pipe upstream from the point of chlorine injection. None of these growths could be found downstream from the point of chlorination but numerous growths could be found all the way upstream to the adit shut-off valve. No growths were ever found on the intake screens.

Microscopic examination showed this growth to be a freshwater sponge. Because growths could not be found below the point of chlorine injection the solution obviously was to move the point of chlorine injection as far upstream as possible, namely 1276 feet. Crews brushed the walls of the pipes free of growths, the line was flushed and placed back in service. Funds were budgeted for a new chlorine station and prior to its being placed into service the pipeline was again inspected, and found to have sponge growths, this required another cleaning and the new chlorine station was then placed in service. No problems have been encountered since.

Strangely, there are two other outlets from this same reservoir and neither of these two have ever been found to have a sponge problem although all points of chlorine injection originally were about the same. Possibly the different velocities in the three lines could be a factor, but one line has a greater velocity and the other a lower velocity.

The author was interested to learn of a similar outbreak which was observed during 1966 in the St. Louis County Water District. Those with a particular interest in fresh-water sponges and the resultant problems are particularly referred to the article in the Journal by King, Ray and Tuepker. (9) This article goes into scientific description of the freshwater sponge Trochospongilla Leidyi and their methods of control with chlorine, and there is no need to repeat them here.

X SUMMARY

As San Francisco's experience with the common blue-green and green algae is typical, this paper has not included any discussion of these algae. Although the local impounding reservoirs do have growths which are easily controlled through the normal bluestone treatment, in a few instances the more exotic organisms just vanished before control methods were instituted.

Operators needing assistance in identification or additional references are referred to the work of Ingram and Bartsch (10) as excellent source material.

Almost all the nuisance organisms encountered in the San Francisco Water Supply System have been susceptible to control by chlorination but the resulting complaints of excessive chlorine taste must be accepted. These complaints become less numerous as water users become accustomed to the chlorinous taste. The ultimate goal, of course, is filtration and judicious use of post chlorination.

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This outline was prepared by Harry W. Tracy, Manager Purification Division, San Francisco Water Department.

Descriptor: Nuisance Organisms

LABORATORY: IDENTIFICATION OF DIATOMS

I OBJECTIVES

A To become familiar with important structural features of diatoms.

B To learn to recognize some common forms at sight.

C To learn to identify less common forms using technical keys.

II PROCEDURE

A Transfer a drop of the water sample containing diatoms to a microscope slide. Cover with cover glass and observe under low power (10X) of microscope.

1 Do all of the diatom cells appear to have the same shape? Do some have square ends and some rounded ends? Touch the cover glass with your pencil several times as you observe through the microscope and note the relationship of the two types of ends to one another.

2 Find a place where a round-ended and a square-ended cell are close together and observe these under oil power (90X). The round-ended view is that of the top or bottom of the diatom cell and is called the "valve" view. The square ended view is that of the side of the cell and is called the "girdle" view.

3 In the valve view note the cross lines in the wall. In this diatom there are many fine lines and a smaller number of coarse lines. The former are present in all diatoms and are called "striae" or "striations." The latter are present only in some genera of diatoms and are called "septa," or in other genera, "costae." Which of the two types of lines are continuous from side to side? The space left in the center by the interrupted lines is known as a "false (pseudo) raphe."

4 What is the predominant color of the diatom? How many plastids? In diatoms, the identification is based almost entirely on the characteristics of the cell wall.

5 Make an outline drawing, at least 3 inches long, of a valve view and a girdle view of the diatom. Show the markings in the upper third of each. Label the striae, septa, and false-raphe. Make a drawing of what you imagine an end view or cross (transverse) section view would be like.

6 Using the key, identify your specimen, listing the alternatives selected.

B Use the key to identify other unknowns as far as possible, listing the alternatives selected in the key. Make a sketch of Navicula and Cyclotella if you identify these forms.

III IMPORTANT TERMS

Capitate - having a known-like end.

Costae - coarse transverse ribs in wall.

False raphe - (see pseudoraphe)

Frustule - the wall of the diatom.

Girdle view - the side view, in which the diatom appears to have square or blunt ends.

Nodule - a lump-like swelling in the center or ends of the valve.

Pseudoraphe - a clear space extending the length of the diatom and bordered on both sides by striae.

Punctae - the dots which comprise the striae.

Raphe - a longitudinal line (cleft) bordered on both sides of striae.

Septa - a self-like partition in the diatom, appearing often as a coarse line.

Striae - fine transverse lines especially evident in the valve view.

Valve view - the top or bottom view, in which the diatom has rounded ends, or is circular in outline.

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This outline was prepared by L. G. Williams, Aquatic Biologist, Formerly with Research and Development, Cincinnati Water Research Laboratory, FWPCA, SEC.

Descriptors: Diatoms, Analytical Techniques

PREPARATION OF PERMANENT DIATOM MOUNTS

I The identification of many diatoms to genus and all diatoms to species requires that the cells be free of organic contents. This is necessary because the taxonomy of the diatoms is based on the structure of the frustule (shells) of the organisms and many features are masked by the presence of organic materials which may remain inside. It is also necessary that at least 1000X magnification (oil immersion) be used to detect the structural features used in identification. No simple procedure for the accurate routine counting of diatoms has yet been developed.

II MATERIALS NECESSARY

A Sample Concentration

1 Centrifuge (such as Universal DU)

2 100 ml centrifuge tubes

3 Membrane filter apparatus

4 Vacuum

B Slide Preparation

1 Slides, 1 × 3 inch, frosted-end

2 Cover glasses, circular #1, 18 mm, 0.13 - .16 mm thick

3 Resinous mounting medium (such as Harleco microscope mounting medium)

4 Hot plates

a 180° F

b 700° F

5 Disposable pipettes

6 3 × 6 × 1/4 inch steel plate

III PROCEDURE

A The volume of sample needed will vary according to the density of diatoms and silt, and only with experience can the correct sample size be determined. In most cases, 100 ml will be sufficient.

1 Spin 100 ml at 1000 G for 20 minutes.

2 Withdraw the supernatant liquid with an aspirator, being careful not to disturb the concentrate at the bottom of the centrifuge tube. (Draw off all but 2-3 ml.)

3 Transfer the concentrate to a labelled 10 ml disposable vial. Label the vial with a magic marker, diamond pencil, or "time" label.

4 If the sample has been preserved with formalin, or contains more than 1.0 gram per liter dissolved solids, it will be necessary to wash the concentrate with distilled water. In this case, transfer the entire concentrate to a 15 ml centrifuge tube. Dilute to 15 ml with distilled water, making certain that the sample is well mixed. Spin for 10 minutes at full speed in a clinical centrifuge. Withdraw the supernatant liquid, and refill with distilled water. Spin again for 10 minutes. Withdraw the supernatant liquid as before, return the concentrate to the rinsed vial in 2-3 ml of distilled water and proceed with the mounting.

5 If more than 200 ml of sample must be centrifuged to obtain sufficient material to prepare a diatom slide, concentrate the diatoms by filtering the sample through a 1.2 micron pore diameter membrane filter. Transfer the filter to a 15 ml centrifuge tube, and dissolve with 90% acetone. Centrifuge 10 minutes (full speed) and decant with an aspirator. Refill with 90% acetone,

agitate, and spin again for 10 minutes. Repeat until three fresh acetone washes have been used. Replace the acetone with 2-3 ml of distilled water and transfer to a labelled vial as described in #4.

B If the loss of minute forms in supernatant is suspected, spin 100 ml at 1000 gs in a batch centrifuge for as long as may be necessary, then proceed as below.

C Mounting

1 Heat the hot plates to the prescribed temperatures.

2 Place one cover glass on the steel plate for each sample.

3 Place the steel plate on the 180° F hot plate.

4 Transfer a drop of sample to a cover glass.

5 Allow the water to evaporate (caution: do not allow it to boil.)

6 Continue to add more sample until a thin layer of material is noticeable on the dry cover glass, or until all of the concentrate has been used. This step is especially critical, and can be learned only by trial and error.

7 Transfer the steel plate to the 700° F hot plate for 20-30 minutes. (The plate should be hot enough to incinerate paper.)

8 While the material is on the high temperature hot plate, label the microscope slides (use a #2 pencil or a fine point drawing pen); place them on the low temperature hot plate, which now has been reset to approximately 275° F.

9 Place a drop of mounting resin on the microscope slides and allow the solvent to evaporate.

10 When the incineration of the material on the cover glasses is complete, transfer the cover glasses, while still hot, to the mounting medium.

11 Allow the resin to penetrate the frustules (1-2 minutes).

12 Remove the slide, place it on a cool desk top, and press the cover glass lightly with a pencil eraser for a few seconds. The medium will harden in 5-10 seconds.

13 Scrape off the excess resin with a razor blade.

D The preparation is now ready for examination under an oil immersion objective.

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This outline was prepared by Dr. C.I. Weber, Chief, Biological Methods Section, Analytical Quality Control Laboratory, 1014 Broadway, Cincinnati, OH 45202.

Descriptors: Diatoms, Analytical Techniques

LABORATORY: IDENTIFICATION OF ANIMAL PLANKTON

I INTRODUCTION

A The great majority of organisms commonly encountered in plankton analysis work are plants or at least plant-like (holophytic). Animals, however, (holozoic or nonchlorophyll bearing forms) are an important part of the community, and the ability to recognize them may be quite important.

B Many animals are soft bodied and so are best observed in the living condition, as they shrink and become otherwise distorted on preservation. There are consequently many which will not be available in a suitable form for the following exercise. Only such forms will be dealt with as can readily be obtained alive, or which retain essential characteristics on preservation.

II OBJECTIVES

A To Study the nature and use of a key for identifying organisms

B To Introduce the Beginners to the Use of the Microscope

C To Learn to Recognize Basic Animal Types

D To Identify Animal Plankton Species as Available, and to Become Familiar with the Literature

III PROCEDURE

A The Use of the Biological Key

1 Obtain a "Basic Invertebrate Collection" from the instructor.

2 Select a specimen designated by the instructor, and turn to the "Key to Selected Larger Groups of Aquatic Animals."

a Examine your specimen carefully, then read the first couplet of statements in the key (1a and 1b).

b Since the specimen is large enough to see, it obviously could not be the object of statement 1a. Therefore due to the nature of the key (as explained in the second paragraph of the introduction) the second alternative (1b) must apply. This alternative instructs us to proceed to couplet 2.

c From here on, follow from couplet to couplet, considering each couplet by itself, until a final selection leads to a name. If this name or couplet is, followed by another couplet number, this means that the group named is further subdivided.

3 Identify the other specimens in the Basic Invertebrate Collection in the same way.

4 Carry the identification further, to genus and species if possible, in one or more of the more detailed keys listed at the end of the "Key to Selected Larger Groups of Aquatic Animals."

B The Use of the Microscope

1 Obtain preliminary information from the instructor as to how to set up and operate the instrument.

2 Place a prepared slide of a printed letter on the stage and observe it successively under low (100X) and high (45X) powers. When the letter is right side up to you, how does it appear through the microscope?

3 Place a prepared slide of a microcrustacean on the stage and identify it using the "Key to Selected Larger Groups of Aquatic Animals." Contin your

identification as far as possible using Eddy and Hodson's "Taxonomic Keys."

4 Prepare a "wet mount" under the direction of the instructor and identify the organism. Confirm your identification in one or more of the technical reference books available.

C Identify each of the specimens in the reference collection as to phylum and class, and then genus and species if possible (do not spend undue time on the species without assistance).

Make a flash card sketch of at least one organism of each phylum observed as an example of a type.

D Examine the living material provided. Sketch and identify animal forms encountered as far as time permits. Can you draw any conclusions as to the types of animal life found in the various habitats indicated?

This outline was prepared by H. W. Jackson, former Chief Biologist, National Training Center, and revised by R. M. Sinclair, Aquatic Biologist, National Training Center, MOTD, OWPO, USEPA, Cincinnati, Ohio 45268

Descriptors: Analytical Techniques, Zooplankton

LABORATORY: PROPORTIONAL COUNTING OF PLANKTON

I OBJECTIVE

To learn and practice the techniques of proportional counting of mixed plankton samples.

II MATERIALS

A Several plankton samples, each containing a number of plankton forms.

B Class slides, cover slips, and dropping pipets.

III PROCEDURES

A Make an ordinary wet mount of the sample provided.

B Scan the slide. Identify and list all types of plankton present.

C Proportional Counting (use clump count)

1 Field count

a Count and tally all individuals of each type present in a field. The best way to do this is to list the most common types separately and record the counts and then enumerate the other forms.

b Move the slide at random and repeat the process. Do this for 5 or 10 fields, or for one or two strips.

c Tally the results and compute the percent of each type.

2 Five hundred count

a Moving the slide at random count and tally all the types of plankton as before until a total of 500 cells or clumps have been counted.

b Tally the results and compute the percentage of each type as before.

IV RESULTS

A Record your results for both methods on the board.

B Discuss the two methods and the use of the proportional count results.

This outline was prepared by M. E. Bender, Biologist, formerly with FWPCA Training Activities, SEC.

Descriptors: Plankton, Analytical Techniques

CALIBRATION AND USE OF PLANKTON COUNTING EQUIPMENT

I INTRODUCTION

A With the exception of factory-set instruments, no two microscopes can be counted upon to provide exactly the same magnification with any given combination of oculars and objectives. For accurate quantitative studies, it is therefore necessary to standardize or "calibrate" each instrument against a known standard scale. One scale frequently used is a microscope slide on which two millimeters are subdivided into tenths, and two additional tenths are subdivided into hundredths. Figure 3.

B In order to provide an accurate measuring device in the microscope, a Whipple Plankton Counting Square or reticule (Figure 2a) is installed in one ocular (there are many different types of reticules). This square is theoretically of such a size that with a 10X objective, a 10X ocular, and a tube length of 160 mm, the image of the square covers a square area on the slide one mm on a slide. Since this objective is rarely attained however, most microscopes must be standardized or "calibrated" as described below in order to ascertain the actual size of the Whipple Square as seen through the microscope (hereinafter referred to as the "Whipple field"). This process is schematically represented in Figures 5 and 7. If the Whipple eyepiece is to be used at more than one magnification, it must be recalibrated for each. A basic type of monocular microscope is shown in Figure 1.

C Microscopes with two eyepieces (binocular) are a convenience but not essential. Like modern cars they are not only great "performers," but also complicated to service or, in this instance, calibrate. On some instruments, changing the interpupillary distance also changes the tube length, on others it does not. The "zoom" feature on certain scopes is also essentially a system for changing the tube length.

The resultant is that in addition to calibration at each combination of eyepiece and objective, any other factor which may affect magnification must also be considered. In some instances this may mean setting up a table of calibrations at a series of microscope settings.

Another procedure is to select a value for each of the variables involved (interpupillary distance, zoom, etc.) and calibrate the scope at that combination. Then each time the scope is to be used for quantitative work, re-set each variable to the value selected. A separate multiplication factor must be calculated for each adjustment which changes the magnification of the instrument.

Since the Whipple Square can be used to measure both linear dimensions and square areas, both should be recorded on an appropriate form. A suggested format is shown in Figure 6.

(Data written in are used as an illustration and are not intended to apply to any particular microscope. An unused form is included as Figure 6-A.)

II THE CALIBRATION PROCEDURE

A Installing the Whipple Square or Reticule

To install the reticule in the ocular (usually the right one on a binocular microscope), carefully unscrew the upper lens mounting and place the reticule on the circular diaphragm or shelf which will be found approximately half way down inside (Figure 4). Replace the lens mounting and observe the markings on the reticule. If they are not in sharp focus, remove and turn the reticule over.

On reticules with the markings etched on one side of a glass disc, the etched surface can usually be recognized by shining the disc at the proper angle in a light. The markings will usually be in the best focus with the etched surface down. If the markings are sandwiched between two glass discs cemented together, both sides are alike, and the focus may not be quite as sharp.

B Observation of the Stage Micrometer

Replace the ocular in the microscope and observe the stage micrometer as is illustrated schematically in Figure 5: Calibration of the Whipple Square. On a suitably ruled form such as the one illustrated, Figure 6, Calibration Data, record the actual distance in millimeters subtended by the image of the entire Whipple field and also by each of its subdivisions. This should be determined for each significant settling of the interpupillary distance for a binocular microscope, and also for each combination of lenses employed. Since oculars and objectives marked with identical magnification, and since microscope frames too may differ, the serial or other identifying number of those actually calibrated should be recorded. It is thus apparent that the determinations recorded will only be valid when used with the lenses listed and on that particular microscope.

C Use of the 20X Objective

Due to the short working distance beneath a 46X (4mm) objective, it is impossible to focus to the bottom of the Sedgewick-Rafter plankton counting cell with this lens. A 10X (16mm) lens on the other hand "wastes" space between the front of the lens and the coverglass, even when focused on the bottom of the cell. In order to make the most efficient use possible of this cell then, an objective of intermediate focal length is desirable. A lens with a focal length of approximately 8 mm, having a magnification of 20 or 21X will meet these requirements. Such lenses are available from American manufacturers and are recommended for this type of work.

III CHECKING THE CELL

The internal dimensions of a Sedgewick-Rafter plankton counting cell should be 50 mm long by 20 mm wide by 1 mm deep (Figure 8).

The actual horizontal dimensions of each new cell should be checked with calipers, and the depth of the cell checked at several points around the edge using the vertical focusing scale engraved on the fine adjustment knob of most microscopes. One complete rotation of the knob usually raises or lowers the objective 1 mm or 100 microns (and each single mark equals 1 micron). Thus, approximately ten turns of the fine adjustment knob should raise the focus from the bottom of the cell to the underside of a coverglass resting on the rim. Make these measurements on an empty cell. The use of a No. 1 or 1-1/2, 24 × 60 mm coverglass is recommended rather than the heavy coverglass that comes with the S-R cell, as the thinner glass will somewhat conform to any irregularities of the cell rim (hence, also making a tighter seal and reducing evaporation when in actual use). Do not attempt to focus on the upper surface of the rim of an empty cell for the above depth measurements, as the coverglass is supported by the highest points of the rim only, which are very difficult to identify. Use the average of all depth measurements as the "true" depth of the cell. To simplify calculations below, it will be assumed that we are dealing with a cell with an average depth of exactly 1.0 mm.

IV PROCEDURE FOR STRIP COUNTS USING THE SEDGEWICK-RAFTER CELL

A Principles

Since the total area of the cell is 1000 mm^2, the total volume is 1000 mm^3 or 1 ml. A "strip" the length of the cell thus constitutes a volume (V_1) 50 mm long, 1 mm deep, and the width of the Whipple field.

The volume of such a strip in mm^3 is:

$$V_1 = 50 \times \text{width of field} \times \text{depth}$$

$$= 50 \times w \times 1$$

$$= 50\ w$$

In the example given below on the plate entitled Calibration Data, at a magnification of approximately 200X with an interpupillary setting of "60", the width of the Whipple field is recorded as approximately 0.55 mm (or 550 microns). In this case, the volume of the strip is:

$$V_1 = 50\ w = 50 \times 0.55 = 27.5\ (mm^3)$$

B Calculation of Multiplier Factor

In order to convert plankton counts per strip to counts per ml, it is simply necessary to multiply the count obtained by a factor (F_1) which represents the number of times the volume of the strip examined (V_1) would be contained in 1 ml or 1000 mm^3. Thus in the example given above:

$$F_1 = \frac{\text{volume of cell in mm}^3}{\text{volume examined in mm}^3}$$

$$= \frac{1000}{V} = \frac{1000}{27.5} = 36.36$$

$$= \text{approx. } 36$$

If more than one strip is to be counted, the factor for two, three, etc., strips could be calculated separately using the same relationships outlined above, changing only the measurement for the length of

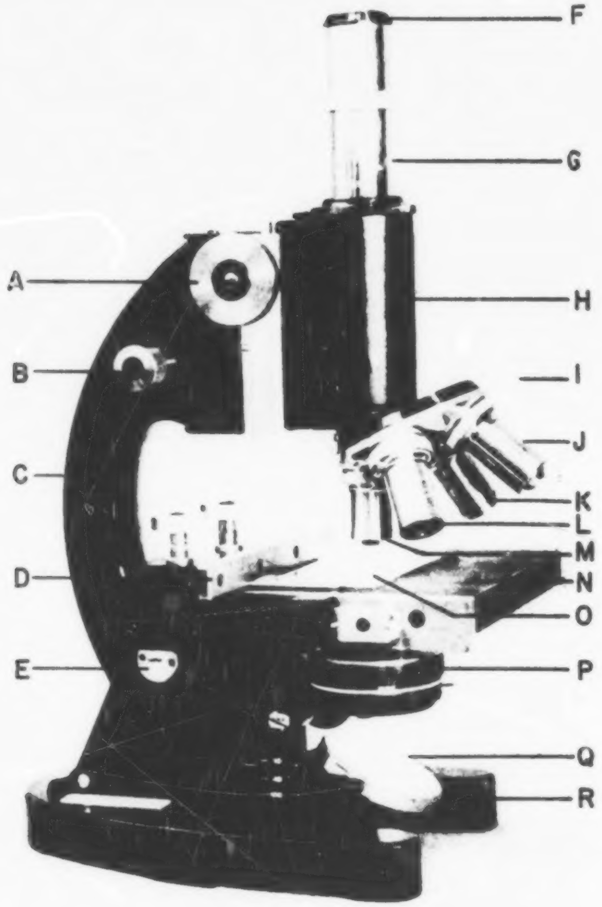


Figure 1. THE COMPOUND MICROSCOPE

A) coarse adjustment; B) fine adjustment; C) arm or pillar; D) mechanical stage which holds slides and is movable in two directions by means of the two knobs; E) pivot or joint. This should not be used or "broken" while counting plankton; F) eyepiece (or ocular cf: figure 4); G) draw tube. This will be found on monocular microscopes only (those having only one eyepiece). Adjustment of this tube is very helpful in calibrating the microscope for quantitative counting (Sec. 5.5.2.2.). H) body tube. In some makes of microscopes this can be replaced with a body tube having two eyepieces, thus making the 'scope into a "binocular." I) revolving nosepiece on which the objectives are mounted; J) through M are objectives, any one of which can be turned toward the object being studied. In this case J is a 40X, K is a 100X, L is a 20X, and M is a 10X objective. The product of the magnification power of the objective being used times the magnification power of the eyepiece gives the total magnification of the microscope. Different makes of microscopes employ objectives of slightly different powers, but all are approximately equivalent. N) stage of the microscope; O) Sedgwick-Rafter cell in place for observation; P) substage condenser; Q) mirror; R) base or stand; note: for information on the optical system, consult reference 3. (Photo by Don Moran.).

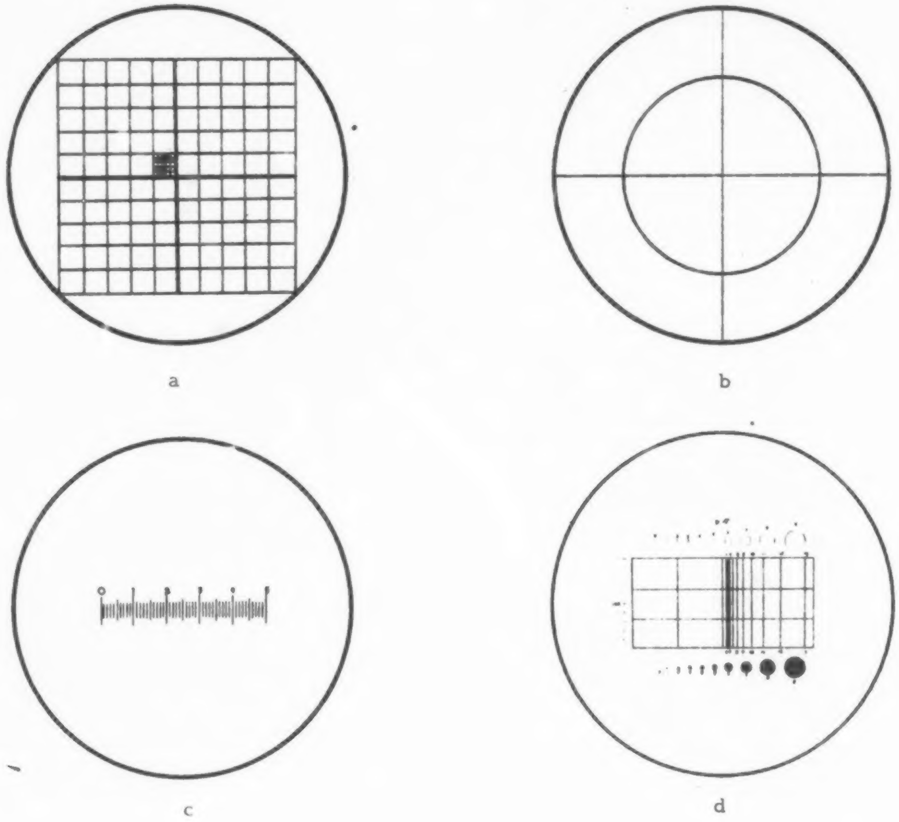


Figure 2

Types of eyepiece micrometer discs or reticules (reticules, graticules, etc.). When dimensions are mentioned in the following description, they refer to the markings on the reticule discs and not to the measurements subtended on the microscope slide. The latter must be determined by calibration procedures such as those described elsewhere. (a) Whipple plankton counting eyepiece. The fine rulings in the subdivided square are sometimes extended to the margin of the large square to facilitate the estimation of sizes of organisms in different parts of the field. (b) Quadrant ruling with 8.0 mm circle, for counting bacteria in milk smears for example. (c) Linear scale 5.0 mm divided into tenths. For measurement of linear dimensions. (d) Porton reticule for estimating the size of particles. The sizes of the series of discs is based on the square root of two so that the areas of successive discs double as they progress in size.

strip counted. Thus for two strips in the example cited above:

$$V_2 = 100W = 100 \times 0.55 = 55 \text{ mm}^3$$

$$F_2 = \frac{1000}{V_1} = \frac{1000}{55} = 18.2$$

It will however be noted that $F_2 = \frac{F_1}{2}$.

Likewise a factor F_3 for three strips would equal $\frac{F_1}{3}$ or approximately 12, etc.

C An Empirical "Step-Off" Method

A simpler but more empirical procedure for determining the factor is to consider that if a strip 20 mm wide were to be counted the length of the cell, that the entire 1000 mm^3 would be included since the cell is 20 mm wide and 1 mm deep.

This 20 mm strip width can be equated to 1000 mm^3. If a strip (or the total of 2 or more strips) is less than 20 mm in width, the quotient of 20 divided by this width will be a multiplier factor for converting from count per strip(s) to count per ml.

Thus in the example cited above where at an approximate magnification of 200X and with an interpupiliary setting of 60, the width of the Whipple field is .55 mm. Then:

$$F_1 = \frac{20}{.55} = 36.36 \text{ or approx. } 36$$

(as above)

If two strips are counted:

$$\begin{array}{r} .55 \\ + \ .55 \\ \hline 1.10 \end{array} \text{ and } F_2 = \frac{20}{1.1} = 18.2 = \text{approx. } 18, \text{etc.}$$

This same value could be obtained without the use of a stage micrometer by carefully moving the cell sidewise across the field of vision by the use of a mechanical stage. Count the number of Whipple fields in the width of the cell. There should be approximately 36 in the instance cited above.

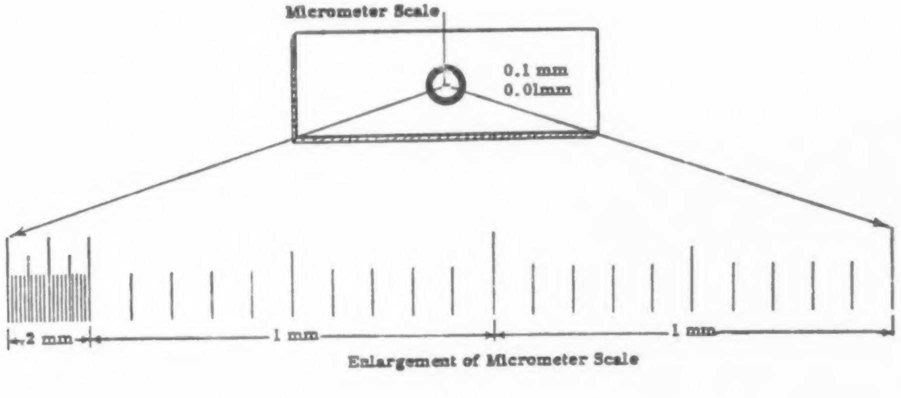
V SEPARATE FIELD COUNT USING THE SEDGEWICK-RAFTER CELL

A Circumstances of Use

The use of concentrated samples, local established programs, or other circumstances

Figure 3. STAGE MICROMETER

The type illustrated has two millimeters divided into tenths, plus two additional tenths subdivided into hundredths.



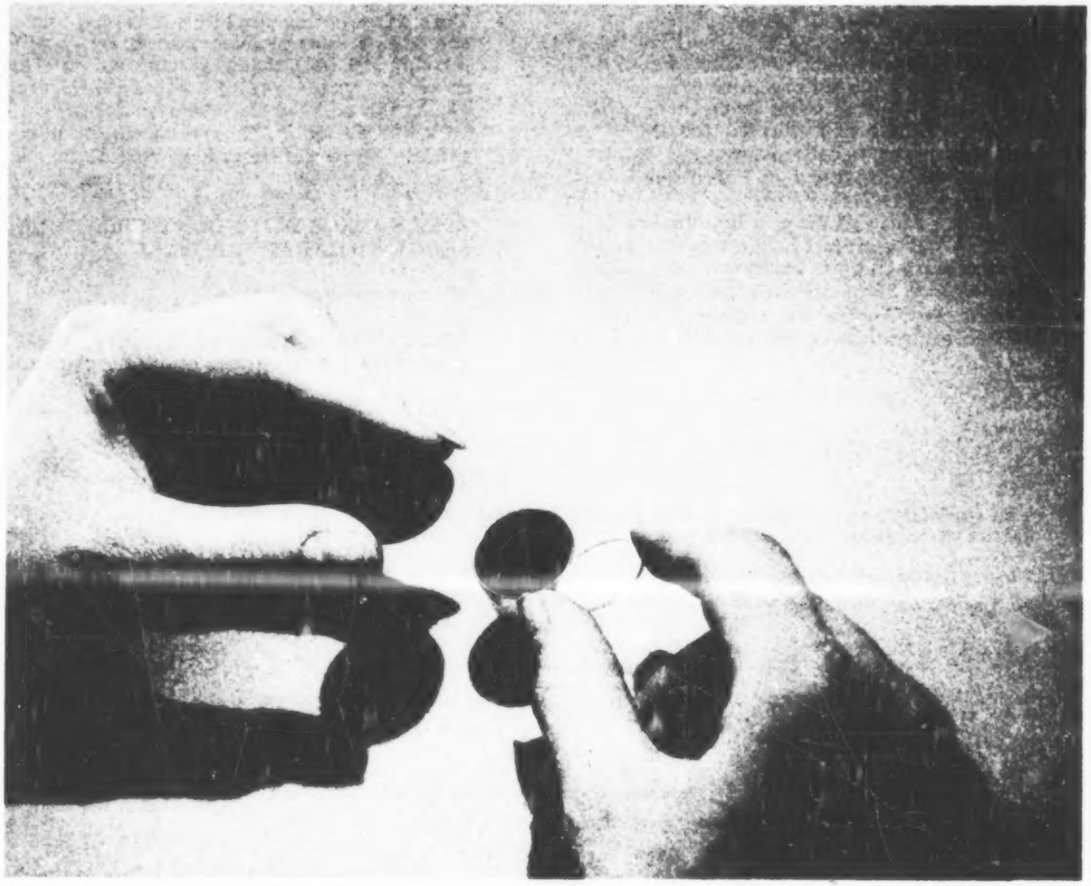


Figure 4. Method of Mounting the Whipple Disc in an Ocular. Note the upper lens of the ocular which has been carefully unscrewed, held in the left hand, and the Whipple disc, held in the right hand. (Photo by Don Moran).

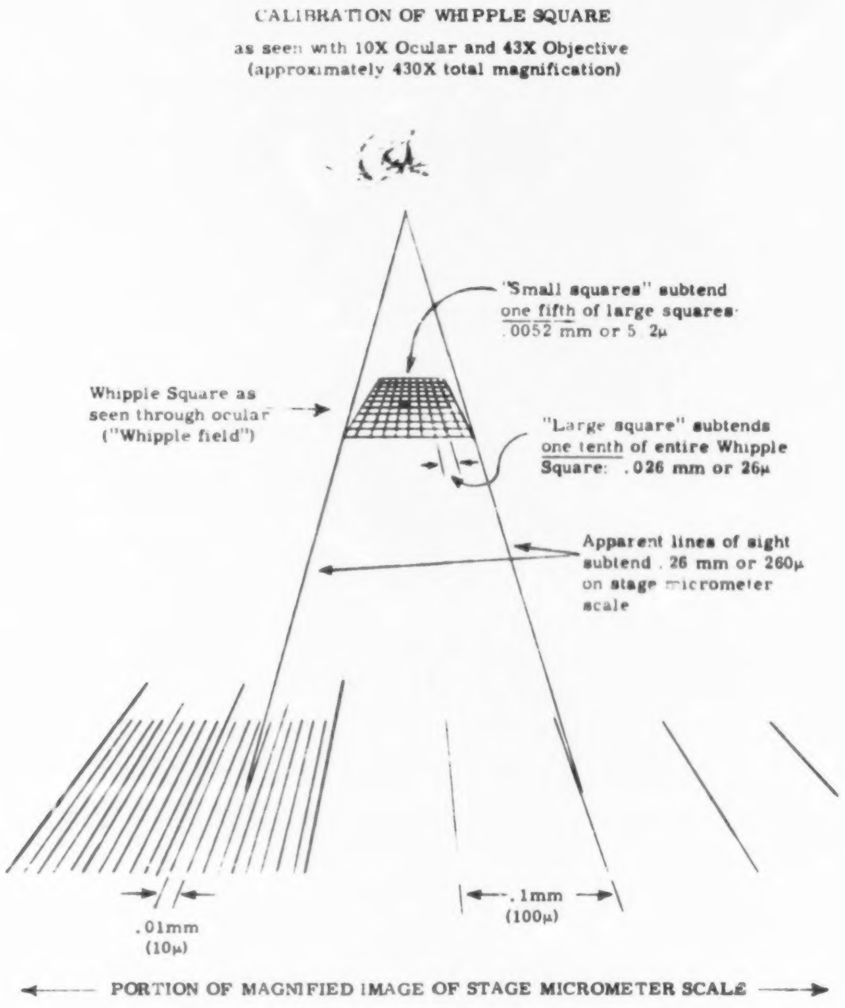

CALIBRATION OF WHIPPLE SQUARE
as seen with 10X Ocular and 43X Objective
(approximately 430X total magnification)
"Small squares" subtend one fifth of large squares: .0052 mm or 5.2μ
Whipple Square as seen through ocular ("Whipple field")
"Large square" subtends one tenth of entire Whipple Square: .026 mm or 26μ
Apparent lines of sight subtend .26 mm or 260μ on stage micrometer scale
.01mm (10μ)
.1mm (100μ)
PORTION OF MAGNIFIED IMAGE OF STAGE MICROMETER SCALE

Figure 5

CALIBRATION OF THE WHIPPLE SQUARE

The apparent relationship of the Whipple Square is shown as it is viewed through a microscope while looking at a stage micrometer with a magnification of approximately 430X (10X ocular and 43X objective).

MICROSCOPE CALIBRATION DATA

Microscope No. 62379

Approximate Magnification	Tube Length, or Interpupillary Setting	Linear dimensions of Whipple squares in millimeters*			Factor for Conversion to count/ml
		Whole	Large	Small	
100X, obtained with					**(2 S-R Strips)**
Objective Serial No.					
476421(10x)	50	1.130	0.113	0.0226	8.9
and Ocular Serial No	60	1.115	0.111	0.0222	9.0
1296742(10x)	70	1.100	0.110	0.0222	9.1
200X, obtained with					**(2 S-R Strips)**
Objective Serial No.					
6149289(21x)	50	0.560	0.056	0.0112	17.9
and Ocular Serial No.	60	0.550	0.055	0.0110	18.2
1296742(10x)	70	0.545	0.054	0.0109	18.3
400X, obtained with					**(Nannoplankton) (cell-20 fields)**
Objective Serial No.					
259184(43x)	50	0.267	0.0267	.0053	1724.
and Ocular Serial No.	60	0.263	0.0263	.0053	1786.
1296742(10x)	70	0.260	0.0260	.0052	1852.

*1 mm = 1000 microns

Microscope calibration data. The form shown is suggested for the recording of data pertaining to a particular microscope. Headings could be modified to suit local situations. For example, "Interpupillary Setting" could be replaced by "Tube Length" or the "2S-R Strips" could be replaced by "per field" or "per 10 fields."

Figure 6

MICROSCOPE CALIBRATION DATA

Microscope No. ________________

Approximate Magnification	Tube Length, or Interpupillary Setting	Linear dimensions of Whipple squares in millimeters*			Factor for Conversion to count/ml
		Whole	Large	Small	
100X, obtained with					(2 S-R Strips)
Objective Serial No.					
__________					
and Ocular Serial No.					
__________					
200X, obtained with					(2 S-R Strips)
Objective Serial No.					
__________					
and Ocular Serial No.					
__________					
400X, obtained with					(Nannoplankton) (cell-20 fields)
Objective Serial No.					
__________					
and Ocular Serial No.					
__________					

*1mm = 1000 microns

BI. AQ. pl. 8. 10. 60.

Figure 6-A

MICROSCOPE CALIBRATION DATA

Suggested work sheet for the calibration of a microscope. Details will need to be adapted to the particular instrument and situation.

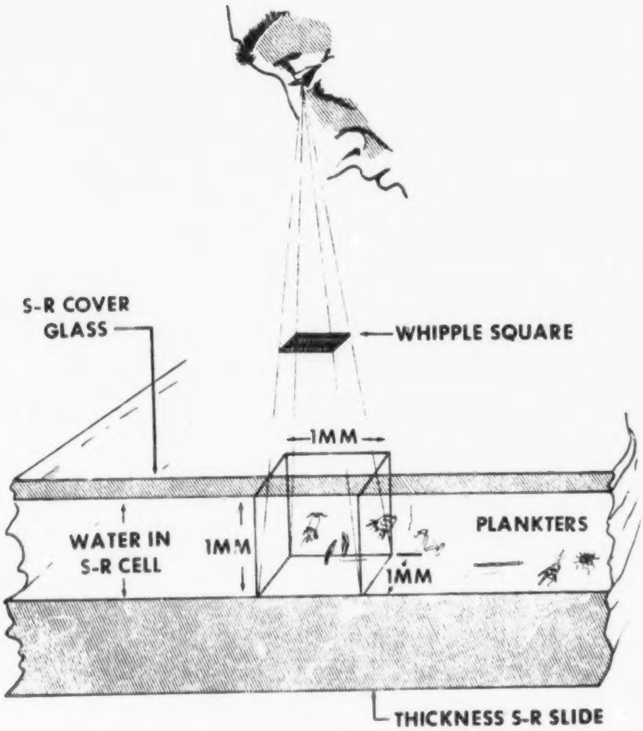

S-R COVER GLASS
WHIPPLE SQUARE
1MM
WATER IN S-R CELL
1MM
PLANKTERS
1MM
THICKNESS S-R SLIDE

Figure 7

A cube of water as seen through a Whipple square at 100X magnification in a Sedgewick-Rafter cell. The figure is drawn as if the microscope were focused on the bottom of the cell, making visible only those organisms lying on the bottom of the cell. The little "bug" (copepod) halfway up, and the algae filament at the top would be out of focus. The focus must be moved up and down in order to study (or count) the entire cube.

may make it necessary to employ the more conventional technique of counting one or more separate Whipple fields instead of the strip count method. The basic relationships outlined above still hold, namely:

$$F = \frac{\text{volume cell in mm}^3}{\text{volume examined in mm}^3}$$

B Principles Involved

The volume examined in this case will consist of one or more squares the dimensions of the Whipple field in area and 1 mm in depth (Figure 7). Common practice for routine work is to examine 10 fields, but exceptionally high or low counts or other circumstances may indicate that some other number of fields should be employed. In this case a "per field" factor may be determined to be subsequently divided by the number of fields examined as with the strip count. The following description however is based on an assumed count of 10 fields.

C Calculation of Multiplier Factor

As stated above, the total volume represented in the fields examined consists of the total area of the Whipple fields multiplied by the depth.

$$V_4 = (\text{side of Whipple field})^2 \times \text{depth}$$
$$(1\text{ mm}) \times \text{no. of fields counted})$$

For example, let us assume an approximate magnification of 100X (see Figures 6 and 7 and an interpupillary setting of "50". The observed length of one side of the Whipple field in this case is 1.13 mm. The calculation of V_4 is thus:

$$V_4 = \text{side}^2 \times \text{depth} \times \text{no. of fields}$$
$$= 1.13 \times 1.13 \times 1 \times 10 = 12.8\text{ mm}^3$$

The multiplier factor is obtained as above (Section IV A):

$$F_4 = \frac{\text{volume cell in mm}^3}{\text{volume examined in mm}^3}$$
$$= \frac{1000}{12.8} = \text{(approx.) } 78$$

(If one field were counted, the factor would be 781, for 100 fields it would be 7.8.)

NANNOPLANKTON COUNTING

For counting nannoplankton using the high dry power (10X ocular and 43X objective) and the "nannoplankton counting cell" (Figure 9) which is 0.4 mm deep, a minimum of 20 separate Whipple fields is suggested. The same general relationships presented above (Section IV) can be used to obtain a multiplier or factor (F_5) to convert counts per 20 fields to counts per ml.

To take another example from Figure 4, at an approximate magnification of 400X and an interpupillary setting of 70 (see also Figure 3) we observe that one side of the Whipple field measures 0.260 mm. The volume of the fields examined is thus obtained as follows:

$$V_5 = \text{side}^2 \times \text{depth} \times \text{no. of fields}$$
$$= 0.26 \times 0.26 \times 0.4 \times 20 = .54\text{ mm}^3$$

$$\text{and } F_5 = \frac{1000}{.54} = \text{(approx.) } 1850$$

It should be noted that the volume of the nannoplankton cell, .1 ml, is of no significance in this particular calculation.

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4 Palmer, C. M Algae in Water Supplies. U. S. D. H. E. W. Public Health Service Pub. No. 657. 1959.

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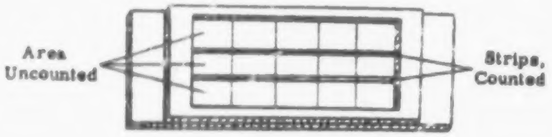


Figure 8

Sedgewick-Rafter counting cell showing bottom scored across for ease in counting strips. The "strips" as shown in the illustration simply represent the area counted, and are not marked on the slide. The conventional dimensions are 50 × 20 × 1 mm, but these should be checked for accurate work.

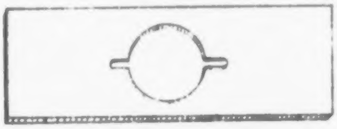


Figure 9

Nannoplankton cell. Dimensions of the circular part of the cell are 17.9 mm diameter × 0.4 mm depth. When covered with a coverglass, the volume contained is 0.1 ml. The channels for the introduction of sample and the release of air are 2 mm wide and approximately 5 mm long. This slide is designed to be used with the 4 mm or 43X (high dry) objective.

6 Welch, Paul S. Limnological Methods. Blakiston Company. Phila. Toronto. 1948.

7 Whipple, G. C., Fair, G. M., and Whipple, M. C. The Microscopy of Drinking Water. John Wiley and Sons. New York. 1948.

This outline was prepared by H. W. Jackson, former Chief Biologist, National Training Center, and revised by R. M. Sinclair, Aquatic Biologist, National Training Center MOTD, OWPO, USEPA, Cincinnati, Ohio 45268

Descriptors: Plankton, Microscopy

LABORATORY: FUNDAMENTALS OF QUANTITATIVE COUNTING

I OBJECTIVE

To learn and practice the basic techniques of quantitative plankton counting

II MATERIALS

A Plankton Samples Containing a Variety of Plankton Forms

B S-R Cells and Coverglasses, Large Bore 1 ml Pipettes, Whipple Discs, Plankton Record Form

III PROCEDURE

A Fill the S-R cell with sample number 1 as follows:

> Place the coverglass diagonally across the S-R cell. This leaves the other two corners uncovered; one for putting in the sample fluid, the other to allow air to be driven out as it is replaced by the incoming aliquot. Shake the sample to disperse the plankton. Before settling occurs in the sample draw about 1-1/4 ml of the fluid into the pipette and quickly fill the S-R cell by delivering the aliquot into one of the open corners of the chamber.

B Using 100x focus on the sample. After focus has been obtained switch to 200x. Scan the slide and list the plankton forms present.

C Starting from one end of the S-R cell and proceding to the opposite (this is called a strip count, begin counting (clump counts) the plankton forms. The length of the cell may be traversed in several ways.

1 Count all the forms in the Whipple square or in a portion of the square, record the count and move the slide so that the square covers the adjoining area.

2 Move the slide very slowly counting and recording the various forms as they pass the leading edge of the Whipple disc.

IV RESULTS

A Using the conversion factor obtained in the previous laboratory compute the number of plankton organisms per ml.

B Record the results on the board.

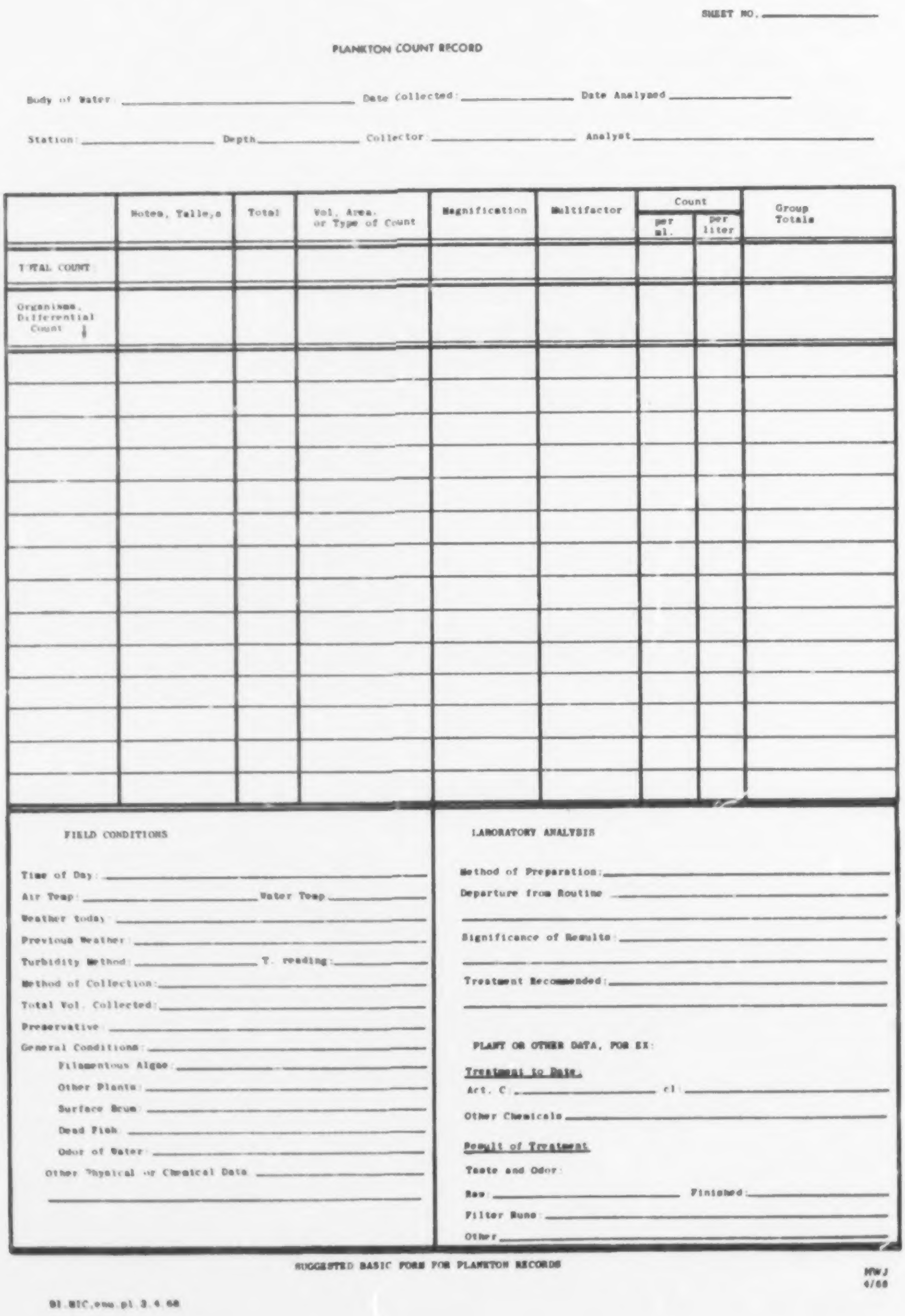
C Discussion of Results

D Refill the slide with a fresh aliquot and recount the sample. Compare results with the first count.

E Count the other samples of mixed plankton as assigned, following the same procedure.

This outline was prepared by M. E. Bender, Former Biologist, FWPCA, Water Pollution Training Activities, SEC.

Descriptors: Plankton, Analytical Techniques



SHEET NO. ____________

PLANKTON COUNT RECORD

Body of Water: ____________ Date Collected: ____________ Date Analyzed ____________

Station: ____________ Depth ____________ Collector: ____________ Analyst ____________

	Notes, Tallies	Total	Vol. Area, or Type of Count	Magnification	Multifactor	Count		Group Totals
						per ml.	per liter	
TOTAL COUNT:								
Organisms, Differential Count ↓								

FIELD CONDITIONS

Time of Day: ____________

Air Temp: ____________ Water Temp ____________

Weather today: ____________

Previous Weather: ____________

Turbidity Method: ____________ T. reading: ____________

Method of Collection: ____________

Total Vol. Collected: ____________

Preservative: ____________

General Conditions: ____________

Filamentous Algae: ____________

Other Plants: ____________

Surface Scum: ____________

Dead Fish: ____________

Odor of Water: ____________

Other Physical or Chemical Data ____________

LABORATORY ANALYSIS

Method of Preparation: ____________

Departure from Routine ____________

Significance of Results: ____________

Treatment Recommended: ____________

PLANT OR OTHER DATA, FOR EX:

Treatment to Date:

Act. C: ____________ Cl: ____________

Other Chemicals ____________

Result of Treatment

Taste and Odor:

Raw: ____________ Finished: ____________

Filter Runs: ____________

Other ____________

SUGGESTED BASIC FORM FOR PLANKTON RECORDS

MWJ
4/68

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KEY TO SELECTED GROUPS OF FRESHWATER ANIMALS

The following key is intended to provide an introduction to some of the more common freshwater animals. Technical language is kept to a minimum.

In using this key, start with the first couplet (1a, 1b), and select the alternative that seems most reasonable. If you selected "1a" you have identified the animal as a member of the group, Phylum PROTOZOA. If you selected "1b", proceed to the couplet indicated. Continue this process until the selected statement is terminated with the name of a group.

If you wish more information about the group, consult references. (See reference list.)

Key to Selected Groups of Freshwater Animals

1a The body of the organism comprising a single microscopic independent cell, or many similar and independently functioning cells associated in a colony with little or no difference between the cells, i.e., without forming tissues; or body comprised of masses of multinucleate protoplasm. Mostly microscopic, single celled animals.

Phylum PROTOZOA

1b The body of the organism comprised of many cells of different kinds, i.e., forming tissues. may be microscopic or macroscopic. 2

2a Body or colony usually forming irregular masses or layers sometimes cylindrical, goblet shaped, vase shaped, or tree like. Size range from barely visible to large. 3

2b Body or colony shows some type of definite symmetry. 4

3a Colony surface rough or bristly in appearance under microscope or hand lens. Grey, green, or brown. Sponges.
Phylum PORIFERA (Fig. 1)

3b Colony surface relatively smooth, General texture of mass gelatinous, transparent. Clumps of minute individual organisms variously distributed. Moss animals, bryozoans.
Phylum Bryozoa (Fig. 2)

4a Microscopic. Action of two ciliated (fringed) lobes at anterior (front) end in life often gives appearance of wheels. Body often segmented, accordian-like. Free swimming or attached. Rotifers or wheel animalcules.
Phylum TROCHELMINTHES (Rotifera) (Fig. 3)

4b Larger, wormlike, or having strong skeleton or shell. 5

5a Skeleton or shell present. Skeleton may be external or internal. 15

5b Body soft and/or wormlike. Skin may range from soft to parchment-like. 6

6a Three or more pairs of well formed jointed legs present. 19
Phylum ARTHROPODA (Fig. 4)

6b Legs or appendages, if present, limited to pairs of bumps or hooks. Lobes or tenacles, if present, soft and fleshy, not jointed. 7

7a Body strongly depressed or flattened in cross section. 8

7b Body oval, round, or shaped like an inverted "U" in cross section. 10

8a Parasitic inside bodies of higher animals. Extremely long and flat, divided into section like a Roman girdle. Life history may involve an intermediate host. Tapeworms
Class CESTODA (Fig. 5)

8b Body a single unit. Mouth and digestive system present, but no anus.

9a External or internal parasite of higher animals. Sucking discs present for attachment. Life history may involve two or more intermediate hosts or stages. Flukes.
Class TREMATODA

9b Free living. Entire body covered with locomotive cilia. Eye areas in head often appear "crossed". Free living flatworms.
Class TURBELLARIA (Fig. 6)

10a Long, slender, with snake-like motion in life. Covered with glistening cuticle. Parasitic or free-living. Microscopic to six feet in length. Round worms.
Phylum NEMATHELMINTHES (Fig. 7)

10b Divided into sections or segments 11

10c Unsegmented, head blunt, one or two retractile tentacles. Flat pointed, tail. 18

11a Head a more or less well-formed hard, capsule with jaws, eyes, and antennae.
Class INSECTA order DIPTERA (Figs. 8A, 8C)

11b Head structure soft, except jaws (if present). Fig. 8E.) 12

12a Head conical or rounded, lateral appendages not conspicuous or numerous. 13

12b Head somewhat broad and blunt. Retractile jaws usually present. Soft fleshy lobes or tentacles, often somewhat flattened, may be present in the head region. Tail usually narrow. Lateral lobes or fleshy appendages on each segment unless there is a large sucker disc at rear end. 14
Phylum ANNELIDA (Fig. 9)

13a Minute dark colored retractile jaws present, body tapering somewhat at both ends, pairs or rings of bumps or "legs" often present, even near tail.
Class INSECTA Order DIPTERA (Fig. 8)

13b No jaws, sides of body generally parallel except at ends. Thickened area or ring usually present if not all the way back on body. Clumps of minute bristles on most segments. Earthworms, sludgeworms.
Order OLIGOCHAETA

14a Segments with bristles and/or fleshy lobes or other extensions. Tube builders, borers, or burrowers. Often reddish or greenish in color. Brackish or fresh water. Nereid worms.
Order POLYCHAETA (Fig. 9A)

14b Sucker disc at each end, the large one posterior. External blood-sucking parasites on higher animals, often found unattached to host. Leaches.
Class HIRUDINEA (Fig. 9B)

15a Skeleton internal, of true bone. (Vertebrates) 40

15b Body covered with an external skeleton or shell. 16
(Figs. 10, 13, 17, 18, 24, 25, 28)

16a External skeleton jointed, shell covers legs and other appendages, often leathery in nature. 19
Phylum ARTHROPODA

16b External shell entire, not jointed, unless composed of two clam-like halves. 17
(Figs. 10, 11, 12)

17a Half inch or less in length. Two leathery, clam-like shells. Soft parts inside include delicate, jointed appendages. Phyllopods or branchiopods.
Class CRUSTACEA, Subclasses BRANCHIOPODA (Fig. 12) and OSTRACODA (Fig. 11)

17b Soft parts covered with thin skin, mucous produced, no jointed legs. 18
Phylum MOLLUSCA

18a Shell single, may be a spiral cone. Snails.
Class GASTROPODA (Fig. 13)

18b Shell double, two halves, hinged at one point. Mussels, clams
Class BIVALVIA (Fig. 10)

19a Three pairs of regular walking legs, or their rudiments. Wings present in all adults and rudiments in some larvae. 29
Class INSECTA (Figs. 22, 24D, 25, 26, 28, 29)

19b More than three pairs of legs apparently present. 20

20a Body elongated, head broad and flat

with strong jaws. Appendages following first three pairs of legs are rounded tapering filaments. Up to 3 inches long. Dobson fly and fish fly larvae.
Class INSECTA Order MEGALOPTERA (Fig. 14)

20b Four or more pairs of legs. 21

21a Four pairs of legs. Body rounded, bulbous, head minute. Often brown or red. Water mites.

Phylum ARTHROPODA, Class ARACHNIDA, Order ACARI (Fig. 15)

21b Five or more pairs of walking or swimming legs; gills, two pairs of antennae. Crustaceans. 22
Phylum ARTHROPODA, Class CRUSTACEA

22a Ten or more pairs of flattened, leaflike swimming and respiratory appendages. Many species swim constantly in life; some swim upside down. Fairy shrimps, phyllopods, or branchipods.
Subclass BRACHIOPODA (Fig. 16)

22b Less than ten pairs of swimming or respiratory appendages. 23

23a Body and legs enclosed in bivalved (2 halves) shell which may or may not completely hide them. 24

23b Body and legs not enclosed in bivalve shell. May be large or minute. 26
Figs. 17, 18, 19)

24a One pair of branched antennae enlarged for locomotion, extend outside of shell (carapace). Single eye usually visible. "Water fleas"
Subclass (CLADOCERA (Fig. 12)

24b Locomotion accomplished by body legs, not by antennae. 25

25a Appendages leaflike, flattened, more than ten pairs.

25b Animal less than 3 mm, in length. Appendages more or less slender and jointed, often used for walking. Shells opaque. Ostracods.
(Fig. 11) Subclass OSTRACODA

26a Body a series of six or more similar segments, differing mainly in size. 27

26b Front part of body enlarged into a somewhat separate body unit (cephalothorax) often covered with a single piece of shall (carapace). Back part (abdomen) may be relatively small, even folded underneath front part. (Fig. 19b) 28

27a Body compressed laterally, i.e., organism is tall and thin. Scuds. amphipods.
Subclass AMPHIPODA (Fig. 17)

27b Body compressed dorsoventrally, i.e., organism low and broad. Flat gills contained in chamber beneath tail. Sowbugs.
Subclass ISOPODA (Fig. 18)

28a Abdomen extending straight out behind, ending in two small projections. One or two large masses of eggs are often attached to female. Locomotion by means of two enlarged, unbranched antennae, the only large appendages on the body. Copepods.
Subclass COPEPODA (Fig. 19)

28b Abdomen extending out behind ending in an expanded "flipper" or swimming paddle. Crayfish or craw fish. Eyes on movable stalks. Size range usually from one to six inches.
Subclss DECAPODA

29a Two pairs of functional wings, one pair may be more or less hardened as protection for the other pair. Adult insects which normally live on or in the water. (Figs. 25, 28) 39

29b No functional wings, though pads in which wings are developing may be visible. Some may resemble adult insects very closely, others may differ extremely from adults. 30

30a External pads or cases in which wings develop clearly visible. (Figs. 24, 26, 27) 35

30b More or less wormlike, or at least no external evidence of wing development. 31

31a No jointed legs present. Other structures such as hooks, sucker discs, breathing tubes may be present. Larvae of flies, midget, etc.
Order DIPTERA (Fig. 8)

31b Three pairs of jointed thoracic legs, head capsule well formed. 32

32a Minute (2-4mm) living on the water surface film. Tail a strong organ that can be hooked into a "catch" beneath the thorax. When released animal jumps into the air. No wings are ever grown. Adult springtails.
Order COLLEMBOLA (Fig. 20)

32b Larger (usually over 5 mm) wormlike, living beneath the surface. 33

33a Live in cases or webs in water. Cases or webs have a silk foundation to which tiny sticks, stones, and/or bits of debris are attached. Abdominal segments often with minute gill filaments. Generally cylindric in shape. Caddisfly larvae.
Order TRICHOPTERA (Fig. 21)

33b Free living, build no cases. 34

34a Somewhat flattened in cross section and massive in appearance. Each abdominal segment with rather stout, tapering, lateral filaments about as long as body is wide. Alderflies, fishflies, and dobsonflies.
Order MEGALOPTERA (Fig. 22, 14)

34b Generally rounded in cross section. Lateral filaments if present tend to be long and thin. A few forms extremely flattened, like a suction cup. Beetle larvae.
Order COLEOPTERA (Fig. 23)

35a Two or three filaments or other structures extending out from end of abdomen. 37

35b Abdomen ending abruptly, unless terminal segment itself is extended as single structure. (Figs. 24A, 24C) 36

36a Mouth parts adapted for chewing. Front of face covered by extensible folded mouthparts often called a "mask". Head broad, eyes widely spaced. Nymphs of dragonflies or darning needles.
Order ODONATA (Figs. 24A, 24C, 24E)

36b Mouthparts for piercing and sucking. Legs often adapted for water locomotion. Body forms various. Water Bugs, water scorpions, water boatment, backswimmers, electric light bugs, water striders, water measurers, etc.
Order HEMIPTERA (Fig. 25)

37a Tail extensions (caudal filaments) two. Stonefly larvae .
Order PLECOPTERA (Fig. 26)

37b Tail extensions three, at times greatly reduced in size. 38

38a Tail extensions long and slender. Rows of hairs may give extensions a feather-like appearance. Mayfly larvae
Order EPHEMEROPTERA

38b Tail extensions flat, elongated plates. Head broad with widely spaced eyes, abdomen relatively long and slender. Damselfly nymths.
Order ODONATA (Fig. 24D)

39a External wings or wing covers form a hard protective dome over the inner wings folded beneath, and over the abdomen. Beetles.
Order COLEOPTERA
(Fig. 28)

39b External wings leathery at base, Membranaceous at tip. Wings sometimes very short. Mouthparts for piercing and sucking. Body form various. True bugs.
Order HEMIPTERA (Fig. 25)

40a Appendage present in pairs. (fins, legs, wings). 42

40b No paired appendages. Mouth a round suction disc. 41

41a Body long and slender. Several holes along side of head. Lampreys.
Sub Phylum VERTEBRATA,
Class CYCLOSTOMATA

41b Body plump, oval. Tail extending out abruptly. Larvae of frogs and toads. Legs appear one at a time during metamorphosis to adult form. Tadpoles.
Class AMPHIBIA

42a Paired appendages are legs 43

42b Paired appendages are fins, gills covered by a flap (operculum). True fishes.
Class PISCES

43a Digits with claws, nails, or hoofs 44

43b Skin naked. No claws or digits Frogs, toads, and salamanders.
Class AMPHIBIA

44a Warm blooded 45

44b Cold blooded. Body covered with horny scales or plates.
Class REPTILIA

45a Body covered with feathers. Birds.
Class AVES

45b Body covered with hair. Mammals.
Class MAMMALIA

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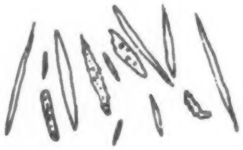
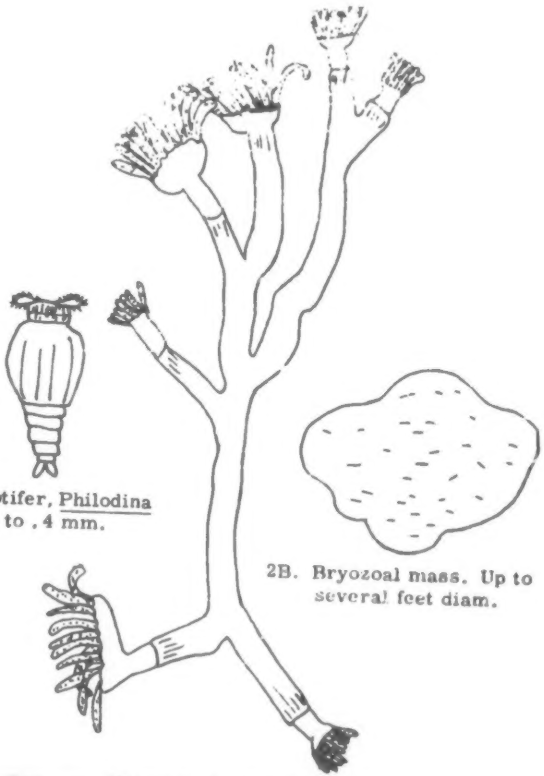
Descriptors: Aquatic Life, Systematics.

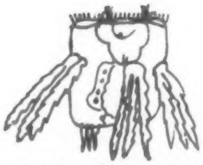


1. Spongilla spicules
Up to .2 mm. long.

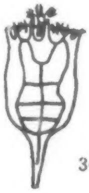


2A. Bryozoa, Plumatella. Individuals up to 2 mm. Intertwined masses may be very extensive.

2B. Bryozoal mass. Up to several feet diam.

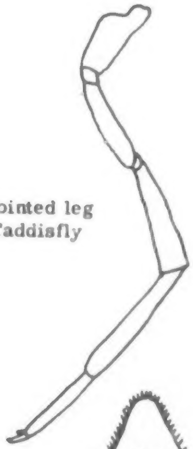


3A. Rotifer, Polyarthra
Up to .3 mm.

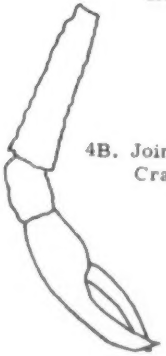


3B. Rotifer, Keratella
Up to .3 mm.

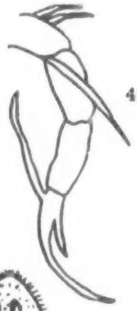
3C. Rotifer, Philodina
Up to .4 mm.



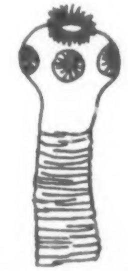
4A. Jointed leg
Caddisfly



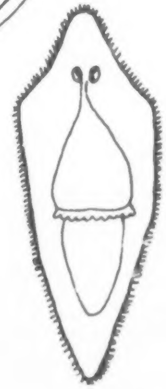
4B. Jointed leg
Crayfish



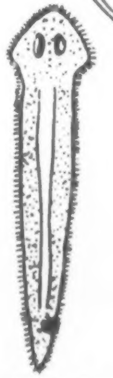
4C. Jointed leg
Ostracod



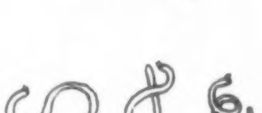
5. Tapeworm head, Taenia. Up to 25 yds. long



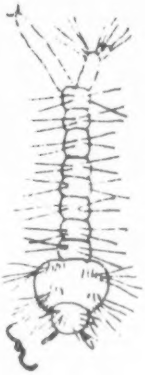
6A. Turbellaria, Mesostoma
Up to 1 cm.



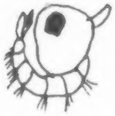
6B. Turbellaria, Dugesia
Up to 1.6 cm.



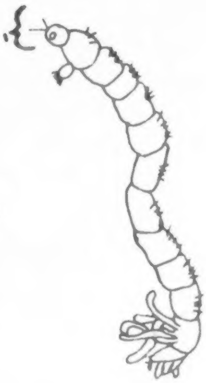
7. Nematodes. Free living forms commonly up to 1 mm., occasionally more.



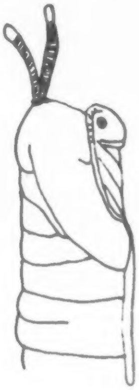
8A. Diptera, Mosquito larvae
Up to 15 mm. long.



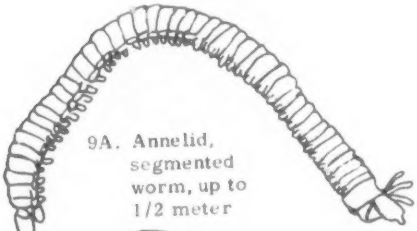
8B. Diptera, Mosquito
pupa. Up to 5 mm.



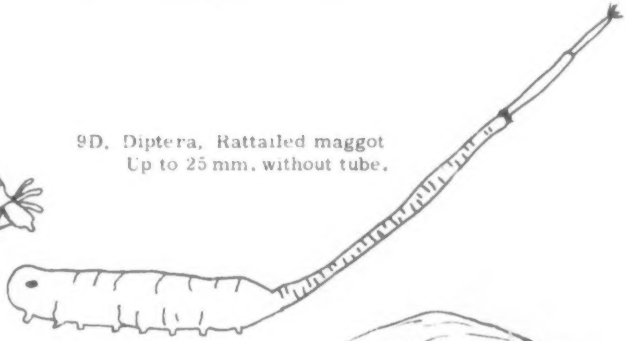
8C. Diptera, chironomid
larvae. Up to 2 cm.



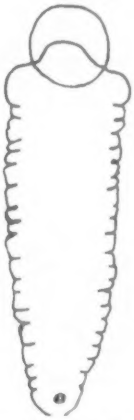
8E. Diptera, crane fly
pupa. Up to 2.5 cm.



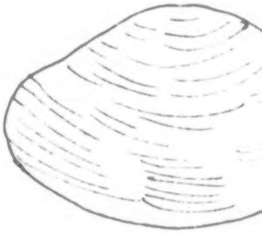
9A. Annelid,
segmented
worm, up to
1/2 meter



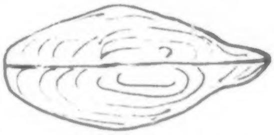
9D. Diptera, Rattailed maggot
Up to 25 mm. without tube.



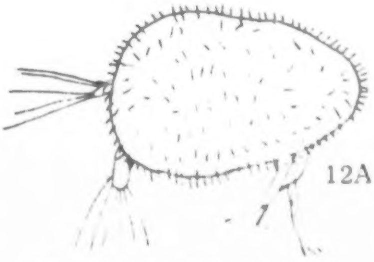
9B. Annelid, leech up to 20 cm.



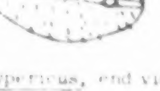
10A. Pelecyopod, Alasmidonta
Side view, up to 18 cm. long.



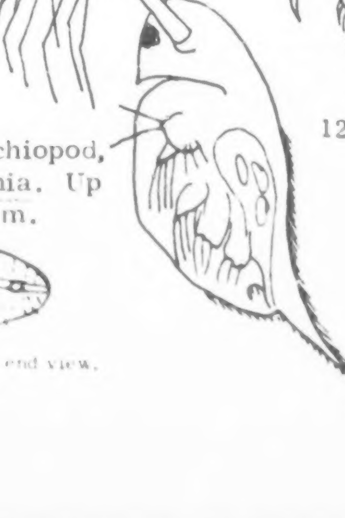
10B. Alasmidonta, end view.



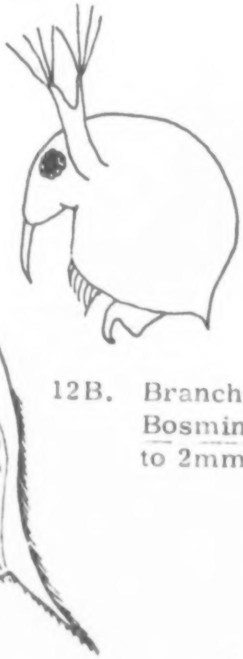
11A. Ostracod, Cypericus
Side view, up to 7 mm.



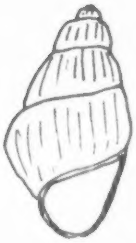
11B. Cypericus, end view.



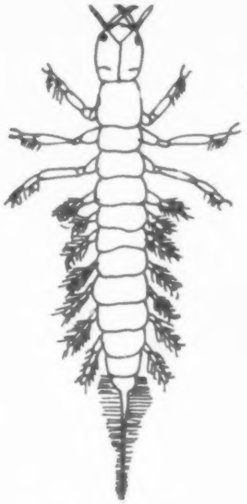
12A. Branchiopod,
Daphnia. Up
to 4mm.



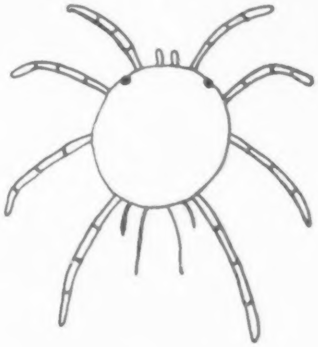
12B. Branchiopod,
Bosmina. Up
to 2mm.



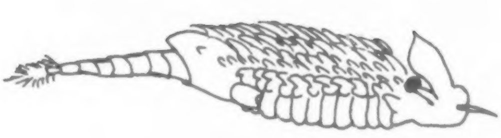
13. Gastropod, Viviparus
Up to 3 inches.



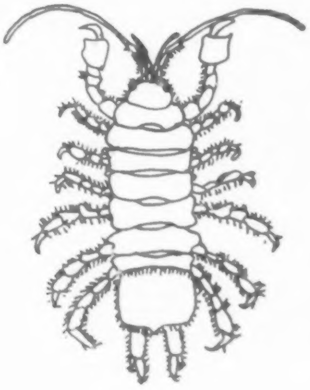
14. Megaloptera,
Alderfly larvae
Up to 25 mm.



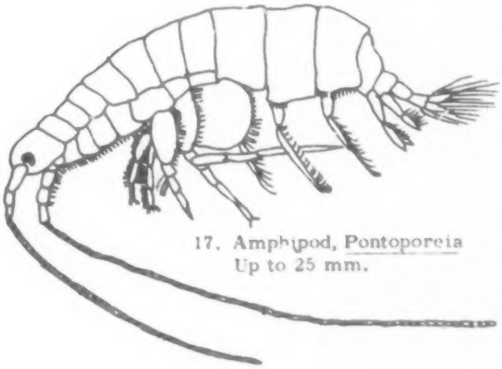
15. Water mite,
Up to 3 mm.



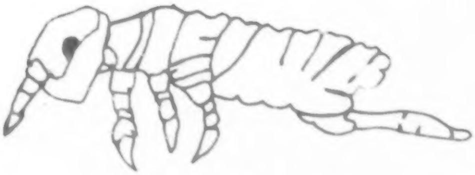
16. Fairy Shrimp, Eubranchipus
Up to 5 cm.



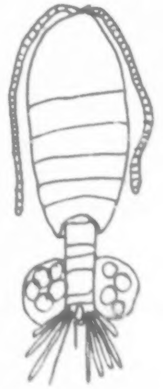
18. Isopod, Asellus
Up to 25 mm.



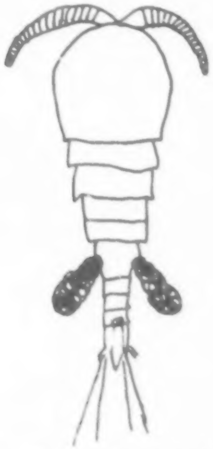
17. Amphipod, Pontoporeia
Up to 25 mm.



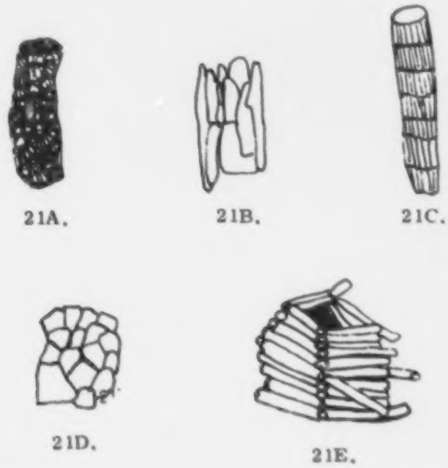
20. Collembola, Podura
Up to 2 mm. long



19A. Calanoid copepod,
Female
Up to 3 mm.



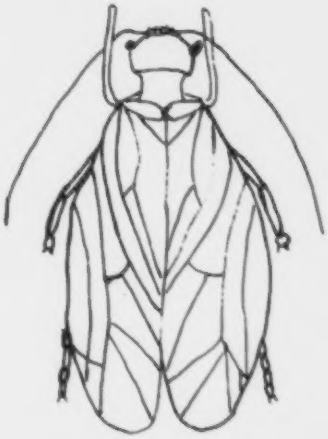
19B. Copepoid copepod,
Female
Up to 25 mm.



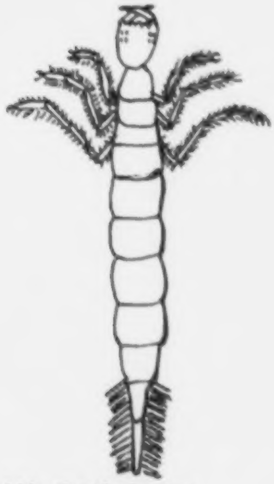
21A. 21B. 21C.

21D. 21E.

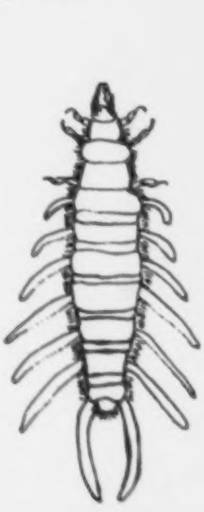
21. Tricoptera, Larvae cases, mostly 1-2 cm.



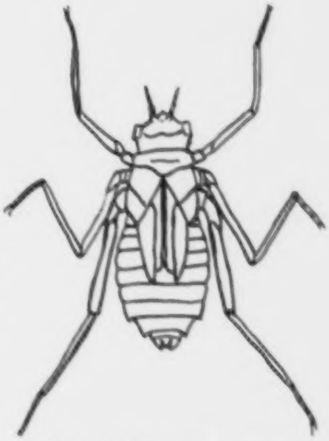
22. Megaloptera, alderfly
Up to 2 cm.



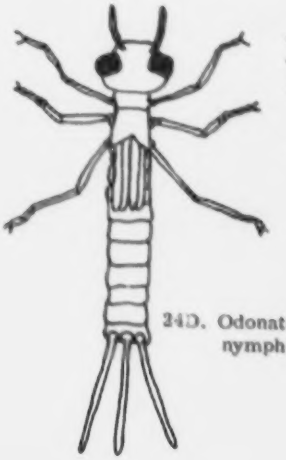
23A. Beetle larvae,
Dytisidae,
Usually about ½ cm.



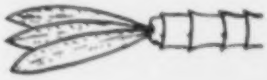
23B. Beetle larvae,
Hydrophilidae,
Usually about 1 cm.



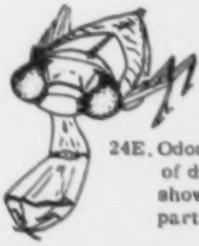
24A. Odonata, dragonfly
nymph up to 3 or 4
cm.



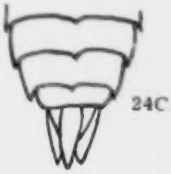
24D. Odonata, damselfly
nymph (top view)



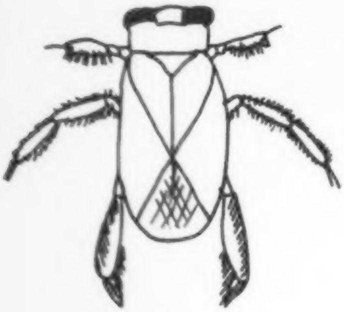
24B. Odonata, tail of
damselfly nymph
(side view)



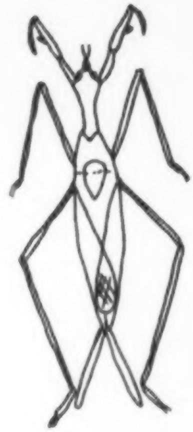
24E. Odonata, front view
of dragonfly nymph
showing "mask"
partially extended



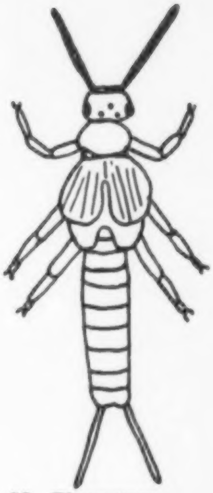
24C. Odonata, tail of
dragonfly nymph
(top view)



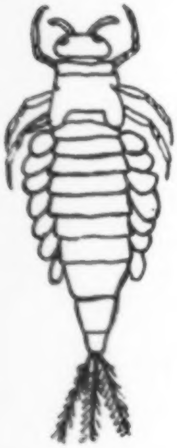
25A. Hemiptera,
Water Boatman
About 1 cm.



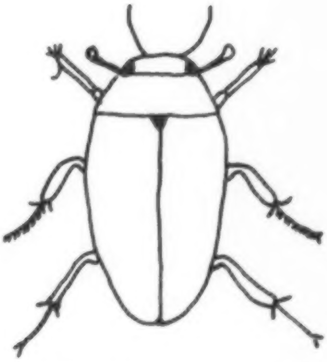
25B. Hemiptera,
Water Scorpion
About 4 cm.



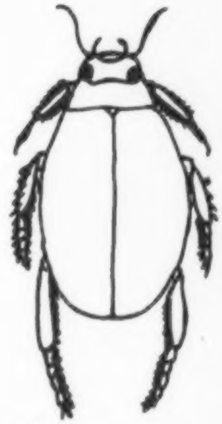
26. Plecoptera,
Stonefly nymph
Up to ½ cm.



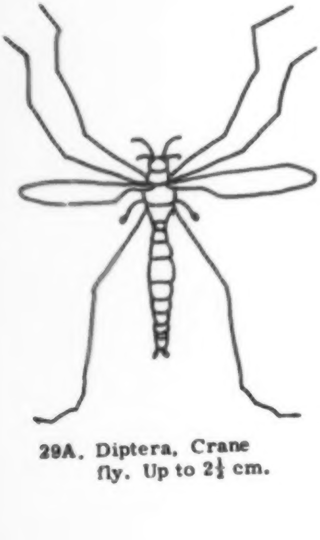
27. Ephemeroptera,
Mayfly nymph
Up to ½ cm.



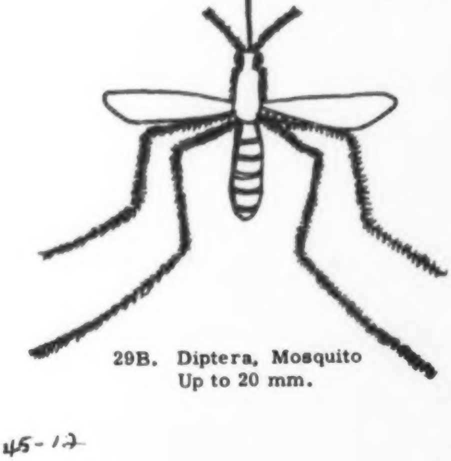
28A. Coleoptera,
Water scavenger
beetle. Up to 4 cm.



28B. Coleoptera,
Dytiscid beetle
Usually up to 2½ cm.



29A. Diptera, Crane
fly. Up to 2½ cm.



29B. Diptera, Mosquito
Up to 20 mm.

II KEY TO ALGAE OF IMPORTANCE IN WATER POLLUTION

1	Plant a tube, thread, strand, ribbon, or membrane; frequently visible to the unaided eye	2
1'	Plants of microscopic cells which are isolated or in irregular, spherical, or microscopic clusters; cells not grouped into threads	123
2 (1)	Plant a tube, strand, ribbon, thread, or membrane composed of cells	3
2'	Plant a branching tube with continuous protoplasm, not divided into cells	120
3 (2)	Plant a tube, strand, ribbon, thread, or a mat of threads	4
3'	Plant a membrane of cells one cell thick (and 2 or more cells wide)	116
4 (3)	Cells in isolated or clustered threads or ribbons which are only one cell thick or wide	5
4'	Cells in a tube, strand, or thread all (or a part) of which is more than one cell thick or wide	108
5 (4)	Heterocysts present	6
5'	Heterocysts absent	23
6 (5)	Threads gradually narrowed to a point at one end	7
6'	Threads same width throughout	12
7 (6)	Threads as radii, in a gelatinous bead or mass	8
7'	Threads not in a gelatinous bead or mass	11
8 (7)	Spore (akinete) present, adjacent to the terminal heterocyst (*Gloeotrichia*)	9
8'	No spore (akinete) present (*Rivularia*)	10
9 (8)	Gelatinous colony a smooth bead	*Gloeotrichia echinulata*
9'	Gelatinous colony irregular	*Gloeotrichia natans*
10 (8')	Cells near the narrow end as long as wide	*Rivularia dura*
10'	Cells near the narrow end twice as long as wide	*Rivularia haematites*
11 (7')	Cells adjacent to heterocyst wider than heterocyst	*Calothrix braunii*
11'	Cells adjacent to heterocyst narrower than heterocyst	*Calothrix parietina*
12 (6')	Branching present	13
12'	Branching absent	14
13 (12)	Branches in pairs	*Scytonema tolypothricoides*
13'	Branches arising singly	*Tolypothrix tenuis*
14 (12')	Heterocyst terminal only (*Cyclindrospermum*)	15
14'	Hetrocysts intercalary (within the filament)	16
15 (14)	Heterocyst round	*Cylindrospermum muscicola*
15'	Heterocyst elongate	*Cylindrospermum stagnale*
16 (14')	Threads encased in a gelatinous bead or mass	17
16'	Threads not encased in a definite gelatinous mass	18
17 (16)	Heterocysts and vegetative cells rounded	*Nostoc pruniforme*
17'	Heterocysts and vegetative cells oblong	*Nostoc carneum*
18 (16')	Heterocysts and vegetative cells shorter than the thread width	*Nodularia spumigena*
18'	Heterocysts and vegetative cells not shorter than the thread width	19
19 (18')	Heterocysts rounded (*Anabaena*)	20
19'	Heterocysts clindric	*Aphanizomenon flos-aquae*
20 (19)	Cells elongate, depressed in the middle; heterocysts rare	*Anabaena constricta*
20'	Cells rounded; heterocysts common	21
21 (20')	Heterocysts with lateral extensions	*Anabaena planctonica*
21'	Heterocysts without lateral extensions	22

22 (21') Threads 4-8μ wide ...... *Anabaena flos-aquae*
22' Threads 8-14μ wide ...... *Anabaena circinalis*

23 (5') Branching absent 24
23' Branching (including "false" branching) present 84

24 (23) Cell pigments distributed throughout the protoplasm 25
24' Cell pigments limited to plastids 49

25 (23) Threads short and formed as an even spiral 285
25' Threads very long and not forming an even spiral 26

26 (25') Several parallel threads of cells in one common sheath ...... *Microcoleus subtorulosus*
26' One thread per sheath if present 27

27 (26') Sheath or gelatinous matrix present 28
27' No sheath nor gelatinous matrix apparent (*Oscillatoria*) 35

28 (27) Sheath distinct; no gelatinous matrix between threads (*Lyngbya*) 29
28' Sheath indistinct or absent; threads interwoven with gelatinous matrix between (*Phormidium*) 32

29 (28) Cells rounded ...... *Lyngbya ocracea*
29' Cells short cylindric 30

30 (29') Threads in part forming spirals ...... *Lyngbya lagerheimii*
30 Threads straight or bent but not in spirals 31

31 (30') Maximum cell length 3.5μ ; sheath thin ...... *Lyngbya digueti*
31' Maximum cell length 6.5μ ; sheath thick ...... *Lyngbya versicolor*

32 (28') Ends of some threads with a rounded swollen "cap" cell 33
32' Ends of all threads without a "cap" cell 34

33 (32) End of thread (with "cap") abruptly bent ...... *Phormidium uncinatum*
33' End of thread (with "cap") straight ...... *Phormidium autumnale*

34 (32') Threads 3-5μ in width ...... *Phormidium inundatum*
34' Threads 5-12μ in width ...... *Phormidium retzii*

35 (27') Cells very short; generally less than 1/3 the thread diameter 36
35' Cells generally 1/2 as long to longer than the thread diameter 39

36 (35) Cross walls constricted ...... *Oscillatoria ornata*
36' Cross walls not constricted 37

37 (36') Ends of thread, if mature, curved 38
37' Ends of thread straight ...... *Oscillatoria limosa*

38 (37) Threads 10-14μ thick ...... *Oscillatoria curviceps*
38' Threads 16-60μ thick ...... *Oscillatoria princeps*

39 (35') Threads appearing red to purplish ...... *Oscillatoria rubescens*
39' Threads yellow-green to blue-green 40

40 (39') Threads yellow-green 41
40' Threads blue-green 43

41 (40) Cells 4-7 times as l[illegible] the thread diameter ...... *Oscillatoria putrida*
41' Cells less than 4 times [illegible]ong as the thread diameter 42

42 (41') Prominent granules ("ps[illegible]lovacuoles") in center of each cell ...... *Oscillatoria lauterbornii*
42' No prominent granules in center of cells ...... *Oscillatoria chlorina*

43 (40') Cells 1/2-2 times as long as the thread diameter 44
43' Cells 2-3 times as long as the thread diameter 48

44 (43) Cell walls between cells thick and transparent ...... *Oscillatoria pseudogeminata*
44' Cell walls thin, appearing as a dark line 45

45 (44') Ends of thread straight .... *Oscillatoria agardhii*
45' Ends of mature threads curved 46

46 (45') Prominent granules present especially at both ends of each cell .... *Oscillatoria tenuis*
46' Cells without prominent granules 47

47 (46') Cross walls constricted .... *Oscillatoria chalybea*
47' Cross walls not constricted .... *Oscillatoria formosa*

48 (43') End of thread long tapering .... *Oscillatoria splendida*
48' End of thread not tapering .... *Oscillatoria amphibia*

49 (24') Cells separate from one another and enclosed in a tube (*Cymbella*) .... 251'
49' Cells attached to one another as a thread or ribbon 50

50 (49') Cells separating readily into discs or short cylinders, their circular face showing radial markings 233
50' Cells either not separating readily, or if so, no circular end wall with radial markings 51

51 (50') Cells in a ribbon, attached side by side or by their corners 52
51' Cells in a thread, attached end to end 56

52 (51) Numerous regularly spaced markings in the cell wall 53
52' Numerous markings in the cell wall absent (*Scenedesmus*) 128

53 (52) Wall markings of two types, one coarse, one fine 185
53' Wall markings all fine (*Fragilaria*) 54

54 (53') Cells attached at middle portion only .... *Fragilaria crotonensis*
54' Cells attached along entire length 55

55 (54') Cell length 25-100µ .... *Fragilaria capucina*
55' Cell length 7-25µ .... *Fragilaria construens*

56 (51') Plastid in the form of a spiral band (*Spirogyra*) 57
56' Plastid not a spiral band 61

57 (56) One plastid per cell 58
57' Two or more plastids per cell 60

58 (57) Threads 18-28µ wide .... *Spirogyra communis*
58' Threads 28-50µ wide 59

59 (58') Threads 28-40µ wide .... *Spirogyra varians*
59' Threads 40-50µ wide .... *Spirogyra porticalis*

60 (57') Threads 30-45µ wide; 3-4 plastids per cell .... *Spirogyra fluviatilis*
60' Threads 50-80µ wide; 5-8 plastids per cell .... *Spirogyra majuscula*

61 (56') Plastids two per cell 62
61' Plastids either one or more than two per cell 66

62 (61) Cells with knobs or granules on the wall 63
62' Cells with a smooth outer wall 64

63 (62) Each cell with two central knobs on the wall .... *Desmidium grevillii*
63' Each cell with a ring of granules near one end .... *Hyalotheca mucosa*

64 (62') Cells dense green, each plastid reaching to the wall .... *Zygnema sterile*
64' Cells light green, plastids not completely filling the cell 65

65 (64') Width of thread 26-32µ; maximum cell length 60µ .... *Zygnema insigne*
65' Width of thread 30-36µ; maximum cell length 120µ .... *Zygnema pectinatum*

66 (61') Plastid a wide ribbon, passing through the cell axis (*Mougeotia*) 67
66' Plastid or plastids close to the cell wall (parietal) 69

67 (66) Threads with occasional "knee-joint" bends .... Mougeotia genuflexa
67' Threads straight 68

68 (67') Threads 19-24μ wide; pyrenoids 4-10 per cell .... Mougeotia sphaerocarpa
68' Threads 20-34μ wide; pyrenoids 4-10 per cell .... Mougeotia scalaris

69 (66') Occasional cells with one to several transverse wall lines near one end (Oedogonium) 70
69' Occasional terminal transverse wall lines not present 73

70 (69) Thread diameter less than 24μ 71
70' Thread diameter 25μ or more 72

71 (70) Thread diameter 9-14μ .... Oedogonium suecicum
71' Thread diameter 14-23μ .... Oedogonium boscii

72 (70') Dwarf male plants attached to normal thread, when reproducing .. Oedogonium idioandrosporum
72' No dwarf male plants produced .... Oedogonium grande

73 (69') Cells with one plastid which has a smooth surface 74
73' Cells with several plastids or with one nodular plastid 78

74 (73) Cells with rounded ends .... Stichococcus bacillaris
74' Cells with flat ends (Ulothrix) 75

75 (74') Threads 10μ or less in diameter 76
75' Threads more than 10μ in diameter 77

76 (75) Threads 5-6μ in diameter .... Ulothrix variabilis
76' Threads 6-10μ in diameter .... Ulothrix tenerrima

77 (75') Threads 11-17μ in diameter .... Ulothrix aequalis
77' Threads 20-60μ in diameter .... Ulothrix Zonata

78 (73') Iodine test for starch positive; one nodular plastid per cell 79
78' Iodine test for starch negative; several plastids per cell 80

79 (78) Thread when broken, forming "H" shape segments .... Microspora amoena
79' Thread when fragmented, separating irregularly or between cells (Rhizoclonium) 100

80 (78') Side walls of cells straight, not bulging. A pattern of fine lines or dots present in the wall but often indistinct (Melosira) 81
80' Side walls of cells slightly bulging. Pattern of wall markings not present (Tribonema) 83

81 (80) Spine-like teeth at margin of end walls 82
81' No spine-like teeth present .... Melosira varians

82 (81) Wall with fine granules, arranged obliquely .... Melosira crenulata
82' Wall with coarse granules, arranged parallel to sides .... Melosira granulata

83 (80') Plastids 2-4 per cell .... Tribonema minus
83' Plastids more than 4 per cell .... Tribonema bombycinum

84 (23') Plastids present; branching "true" 85
84' Plastids absent; branching "false" .... Plectonema tomasiniana

85 (84) Branches reconnected, forming a net .... Hydrodictyon reticulatum
85' Branches not forming a distinct net 86

86 (85') Each cell in a conical sheath open at the broad end (Dinobryon) 87
86' No conical sheath around each cell 90

87 (86) Branches diverging, often almost at a right angle .... Dinobryon divergens
87' Branches compact, often almost parallel 88

88 (87') Narrow end of sheath sharp pointed 89
88' Narrow end of sheath blunt pointed .... Dinobryon sertularia

89 (88) Narrow end drawn out into a stalk........ *Dinobryon stipitatum*
89' Narrow end diverging at the base........ *Dinobryon sociale*

90 (89') Short branches on the main thread in whorls of 4 or more (Nitella)........ 91
90' Branching commonly single or in pairs........ 92

91 (90) Short branches on the main thread rebranched once........ *Nitella flexilis*
91' Short branches on the main thread rebranched two to four times........ *Nitella gracilis*

92 (90') Terminal cell each with a colorless spine having an abruptly swollen base (*Bulbochaete*)........ 93
92' No terminal spines with abruptly swollen bases........ 94

93 Vegetative cells 20-48µ long........ *Bulbochaete mirabilis*
93' Vegetative cells 48-88µ long........ *Bulbochaete insignis*

94 (92') Cells red, brown, or violet........ *Audouinella violacea*
94' Cells green........ 95

95 (94') Threads enclosed in a gelatinous bead or mass........ 96
95' Threads not surrounded by a gelatinous mass........ 99

96 (95) Abrupt change in width from main thread to branches (*Draparnaldia*)........ 97
96' Gradual change in width from main thread to branches (*Chaetophora*)........ 98

97 (96) Branches (from the main thread) with a central, main axis........ *Draparnaldia plumosa*
97' Branches diverging and with no central main axis........ *Draparnaldia glomerata*

98 (96') End cells long-pointed, with colorless tips........ *Chaetophora attenuata*
98' End cells abruptly pointed, mostly without long colorless tips........ *Chaetophora elegans*

99 (95') Light and dense dark cells intermingled in the thread........ *Pithophora oedogogonia*
99' Most of the cells essentially alike in density........ 100

100 (99') Branches few in number, and short, colorless........ *Rhizoclonium hieroglyphicum*
100' Branches numerous and green........ 101

101 (100') Terminal attenuation gradual, involving two or more cells (*Stigeoclonium*)........ 102
101' Terminal attenuation absent or abrupt, involving only one cell (*Cladophora*)........ 104

102 (101) Branches frequently in pairs........ 103
102' Branches mostly single........ *Stigeoclonium stagnatile*

103 (102) Cells in main thread 1-2 times as long as wide........ *Stigeoclonium lubricum*
103' Cells in main thread 2-3 times as long as wide........ *Stigeoclonium tenue*

104 (101') Branching often appearing forked, or in threes........ *Cladophora aegagropila*
104' Branches distinctly lateral........ 105

105 (104') Branches forming acute angle with main thread, thus forming clusters. *Cladophora glomerata*
105' Branches forming wide angles with the main thread........ 106

106 (105') Threads crooked and bent........ *Cladophora fracta*
106' Threads straight........ 107

107 (106') Branches few, seldom rebranching........ *Cladophora insignis*
107' Branches numerous, often rebranching........ *Cladophora crispata*

108 (4') Plant or tube with a tight surface layer of cells and with regularly spaced swellings (nodes).
.... *Lemanea annulata*
108' Plant not a tube that has both a tight layer of surface cells and nodes........ 109

109 (108') Cells spherical and loosely arranged in a gelatinous matrix........ *Tetraspora gelatinosa*
109' Cells not as loosely arranged spheres........ 110

110 (109') Plants branch........ 111
110' Plants not branched........ *Schizomeris leibleinii*

111 (110) Clustered branching........ 112
111' Branches single........ 115

112 (111)	Threads embedded in gelatinous matrix (*Batrachospermum*)	113
112'	No gelantinous matrix (*Chara*)	114
113 (112)	Nodal masses of branches touching one another	*Batrachospermum vagum*
113'	Nodal masses of branches separated by a narrow space	*Batrachospermum moniliforme*
114 (112')	Short branches with 2 naked cells at the tip	*Chara globularis*
114'	Short branches with 3-4 naked cells at the tip	*Chara vulgaris*
115 (111')	Heterocysts present; plastids absent	*Stigonema minutum*
115'	Heterocysts absent; plastids present	*Compsopogon coeruleus*
116 (3')	Red eye spot and two flagella present for each cell	125
116'	No eye spots nor flagella present	117
117 (116')	Round to oval cells, held together by a flat gelatinous matrix (*Agmenellum*)	131
117'	Cells not round and not enclosed in a gelatinous matrix	118
118 (117')	Cells regularly arranged to an unattached disc. Number of cells 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, or 128	133'
118'	Cells numerous; membrane attached on one surface	119
119 (118')	Long hairs extending from upper surface of cells	*Chaetopeltis megalocystis*
119'	No hairs extending from cell surfaces	*Hildenbrandia rivularis*
120 (2')	Constriction at the base of every branch	*Dichotomosiphon tuberosus*
120'	No constrictions present in the tube (*Vaucheria*)	121
121 (120')	Egg sac attached directly, without a stalk, to the main vegetative tube	*Vaucheria sessilis*
121'	Egg sac attached to an abrupt, short, side branch	122
122 (121')	One egg sac per branch	*Vaucheria terrestris*
122'	Two or more egg sacs per branch	*Vaucheria geminata*
123 (1')	Cells in colonies generally of a definite form or arrangement	124
123'	Cells isolated, in pairs or in loose, irregular aggregates	173
124 (123)	Cells with many transverse rows of markings on the wall	185
124'	Cells without transverse rows of markings	125
125 (124')	Cells arranged as a layer one cell thick	126
125'	Cell cluster more than one cell thick and not a flat plate	137
126 (125)	Red eye spot and two flagella present for each cell	*Gonium pectorale*
126'	No red eye spots nor flagella present	127
127 (126')	Cells elongate, united side by side in 1 or 2 rows (*Scenedesmus*)	128
127'	Cells about as long as wide	131
128 (127)	Middle cells without spines but with pointed ends	*Scenedesmus dimorphus*
128'	Middle cells with rounded ends	129
129 (128')	Terminal cells with spines	130
129'	Terminal cells without spines	*Scenedesmus bijuga*
130 (129)	Terminal cells with two spines each	*Scenedesmus quadricauda*
130'	Terminal cells with three or more spines each	*Scenedesmus abundans*
131 (117)	Cells in regular rows, immersed in colorless matrix (*Agmenellum quadriduplicatum*)	132
131'	Cells not immersed in colorless matrix	133
132 (131)	Cell diameter 1.3 to 2.2µ	*Agmenellum quadriduplicatum*, *tenuissima* type
132'	Cell diameter 3-5µ	*Agmenellum quadriduplicatum*, *glauca* type
133 (131')	Cells without spines, projections, or incisions	*Crucigenia quadrata*
133'	Cells with spines, projections, or incisions	134

134 (133')	Cells rounded	*Micractinium pusillum*
134'	Cells angular (*Pediastrum*)	135
135 (134')	Numerous spaces between cells	*Pediastrum duplex*
135'	Cells fitted tightly together	136
136 (135')	Cell incisions deep and narrow	*Pediastrum tetras*
136'	Cell incisions shallow and wide	*Pediastrum boryanum*
137 (125')	Cells sharp-pointed at both ends, often arcuate	138
137'	Cells not sharp-pointed at both ends; not arcuate	141
138 (137)	Cells embedded in a gelatinous matrix	*Kirchneriella lunaris*
138'	Cells not embedded in a gelatinous matrix	139
139 (138')	Cells all arcuate; arranged back to back	*Selenastrum gracile*
139'	Cells straight or bent in various ways; loosely arranged or twisted together (*Ankistrodesmus*)	140
140 (139')	Cells bent	*Ankistrodesmus falcatus*
140'	Cells straight	*Ankistrodesmus falcatus* var. *acicularis*
141 (137')	Flagella present; eye spots often present	142
141'	No flagella nor eye spots present	152
142 (141)	Each cell in a conical sheath open at the wide end (*Dinobryon*)	86
142'	Individual cells not in conical sheaths	143
143 (142')	Each cell with 1-2 long straight rods extending	*Chrysosphaerella longispina*
143'	No long straight rods extending from the cells	144
144 (143')	Cells touching one another in a dense colony	145
144'	Cells embedded separately in a colorless matrix	149
145 (144)	Cells arranged radially, facing outward	146
145'	Cells all facing in one direction	147
146 (145)	Plastids brown; eye spot absent	*Synura uvella*
146'	Plastids green; eye spot present in each cell	*Pandorina morum*
147 (145')	Each cell with 4 flagella	*Spondylomorum quaternarium*
147'	Each cell with 2 flagella (*Pyrobotrys*)	148
148 (147')	Eye spot in the wider (anterior) end of the cell	*Pyrobotrys stellata*
148'	Eye spot in the narrower (posterior) end of the cell	*Pyrobotrys gracilis*
149 (144')	Plastids brown	*Uroglenopsis americana*
149'	Plastids green	150
150 (149')	Cells 16, 32, or 64 per colony	*Eudorina elegans*
150'	Cells more than 100 per colony	151
151 (150')	Colony spherical; each cell with an eye spot	*Volvox aureus*
151'	Colony tubular or irregular; no eye spots (*Tetraspora*)	109
152 (141')	Elongate cells, attached together at one end; arranged radially (*Actinastrum*)	153
152'	Cells not elongate, often spherical	154
153 (152)	Cells cylindric	*Actinastrum gracillimum*
153'	Cells distinctly bulging	*Actinastrum hantzschii*
154 (152')	Plastids present	155
154'	Plastids absent; pigment throughout each protoplast	168
155 (154)	Colonies, including the outer matrix, orange to red-brown	*Botryococcus braunii*
155'	Matrix, if any, not bright colored; cell plastids green	156

156 (155')	Colonies round to oval	160
156'	Colonies not round, often irregular in form	157
157 (156')	Straight (flat) walls between adjacent cells (Phytoconis)	278
157'	Walls between neighboring cells rounded	158
158 (157')	Cells arranged as a surface layer in a large gelatinous tube (Tetraspora)	109
158'	Colony not a tube; cells in irregular pattern	159
159 (158')	Large cells more than twice the diameter of the small cells (Chlorococcum)	280'
159'	Large cells not more than twice the diameter of the small cells (Palmella)	281
160 (156)	Cells touching one another; tightly grouped	Coelastrum microporum
160'	Cells loosely grouped	161
161 (160')	Colorless threads extend from center of colony to cells	162
161'	No colorless threads attached to cells in colony	164
162 (161)	Cells rounded or straight, oval (Dictyosphaerium)	163
162'	Cells elongate, some cells curved	Dimorphococcus lunatus
163 (162)	Cells rounded	Dictyosphaerium pulchellum
163'	Cells straight, oval	Dictyosphaerium ehrenbergianum
164 (161')	Cells rounded	165
164'	Cells oval	Oocystis borgei
165 (164)	One plastid per cell	166
165'	Two to four plastids per cell	Gloeococcus schroeteri
166 (165)	Outer matrix divided into layers (Gloeocystis)	167
166'	Outer matrix homogeneous	Sphaerocystis schroeteri
167 (166)	Colonies angular	Gloeocystis planctonica
167'	Colonies rounded	Gloeocystis gigas
168 (154')	Cells equidistant from center of colony (Gomphosphaeria)	169
168'	Cells irregularly distributed in the colony	172
169 (168)	Cells with pseudovacuoles	Gomphospaeria wichurae
169'	Cells without pseudovacuoles	170
170 (169')	Cells 2-4µ in diameter (Gomphosphaeria lacustris)	171
170'	Cells ovate	Gomphosphaeria aponina
171 (170)	Cells spherical	Gomphosphaeria lacustris, kuetzingianum type
171'	Cells 4-15 in diameter	Gomphosphaeria lacustris, collinsii type
172 (168')	Cells ovid; division plane perpendicular to long axis (Coccochloris)	286
172'	Cells rounded; or division plane perpendicular to short axis (Anacystis)	286'
173 (123')	Cells with an abrupt median transverse groove or incision	174
173'	Cells without an abrupt transverse median groove or incision	184
174 (173)	Cells brown; flagella present (armored flagellates)	175
174'	Cells green; no flagella (desmids)	178
175 (174)	Cell with 3 or more long horns	Ceratium hirundinella
175'	Cell without more than 2 horns	176
176 (175')	Cell wall of very thin smooth plates	Glenodinium palustre
176'	Cell wall of very thick rough plates (Peridinium)	177
177 (176')	Ends of cell pointed	Peridinium wisconsinense
177'	Ends of cell rounded	Peridinium cinctum
178 (174')	Margin of cell with sharp pointed, deeply cut lobes or long spikes	179
178'	Lobes, if present, with rounded ends	182

179 (178)	Median incision narrow, linear	Micrasterias truncata
179'	Median incision wide, "V" or "U" shaped (Staurastrum)	180
180 (179)	Margin of cell with long spikes	Staurastrum paradoxum
180'	Margin of cell without long spikes	181
181 (180')	Ends of lobes with short spines	Staurastrum polymorphum
181'	Ends of lobes without spines	Staurastrum punctulatum
182 (178')	Length of cell about double the width	Euastrum oblongum
182'	Length of cell one to one and one-half times the width (Cosmarium)	183
183 (182')	Median incision narrow linear	Cosmarium botrytis
183'	Median incision wide, "U" shaped	Cosmarium portianum
184 (173')	Cells triangular	Tetraedron muticum
184'	Cells not triangular	185
185 (124)	Cells with one end distinctly different from the other	186
185'	Cells with both ends essentially alike	225
186 (185)	Numerous transverse (not spiral) regularly spaced wall markings present (diatoms)	187
186'	No transverse regularly spaced wall markings	193
187 (186)	Cells curved (bent) in girdle view	Rhoicosphenia curvata
187'	Cells not curved in girdle view	188
188 (187')	Cells with both fine and coarse transverse lines	Meridion circulare
188'	Cells with transverse lines all alike in thickness	189
189 (188')	Cells essentially linear to rectangular; one terminal swelling larger than the other (Asterionella)	190
189'	Cells wedge-shaped; margins sometimes wavy (Gomphonema)	191
190 (189)	Larger terminal swelling 1-1/2 to 2 times wider than the other	Asterionella formosa
190'	Larger terminal swelling less than 1-1/2 times wider than the other	Asterionella gracillima
191 (189')	Narrow end enlarged in valve view	Gomphonema geminatum
191'	Narrow end not enlarged in valve view	192
192 (191')	Tip of broad end about as wide as tip of narrow end in valve view	Gomphonema parvulum
192'	Tip of broad end much wider than tip of narrow end in valve view	Gomphonema olivaceum
193 (186')	Spine present at each end of cell	Schroederia setigera
193'	No spine on both ends of cell	194
194 (193')	Pigments in one or more plastids	195
194'	No plastid; pigments throughout the protoplast	Entophysalis lemaniae
195 (194)	Cells in a conical sheath (Dinobryon)	86
195'	Cells not in a conical sheath	196
196 (195')	Cell covered with scales and long spines	Mallomonas caudata
196'	Cells not covered with scales and long spines	197
197 (196')	Protoplasts separated by a space from a rigid sheath (lorica)	198
197'	No loose sheath around the cells	202
198 (197)	Cells compressed (flattened)	Phacotus lenticularis
198'	Cells not compressed	199
199 (198')	Lorica opaque; yellow to reddish or brown	Trachelomonas crebea
199'	Lorica transparent; colorless to brownish (Chrysococcus)	200
200 (199')	Outer membrane (lorica) oval	Chrysococcus ovalis
200'	Outer membrane (lorica) rounded	201

201 (200')	Lorica thickened around opening	Chrysococcus rufescens
201'	Lorica not thickened around opening	Chrysococcus major
202 (197')	Front end flattened diagonally	203
202'	Front end not flattened diagonally	206
203 (202)	Plastids bright blue-green (Chroomonas)	204
203'	Plastids brown, red, olive-green, or yellowish	205
204 (203)	Cell pointed at one end	Chroomonas nordstetii
204'	Cell not pointed at one end	Chroomonas setoniensis
205 (203')	Gullet present; furrow absent	Cryptomonas erosa
205'	Furrow present, gullet absent	Rhodomonas lacustris
206 (202')	Plastids yellow-brown	Chromulina rosanoffi
206'	Plastids not yellow-brown, generally green	207
207 (206')	One plastid per cell	208
207'	Two to several plastids per cell	211
208 (207)	Cells tapering at each end	Chlorogonium euchlorum
208'	Cells rounded to oval	209
209 (208')	Two flagella per cell (Chlamydomonas)	210
209'	Four flagella per cell	Carteria multifilis
210 (209)	Pyrenoid angular, eye spot in front third of cell	Chlamydomonas reinhardi
210'	Pyrenoid circular, eye spot in middle third of cell	Chlamydomonas globosa
211 (207')	Two plastids per cell	Cryptoglena pigra
211'	Several plastids per cell	212
212 (211')	Cell compressed (flattened) (Phacus)	213
212'	Cell not compressed	214
213 (212)	Posterior spine short, bent	Phacus pleuronectes
213'	Posterior spine long, straight	Phacus longicauda
214 (212)	Cell margin rigid	215
214'	Cell margin flexible (Euglena)	217
215 (214)	Cell margin with spiral ridges	Phacus pyrum
215'	Cell margin without ridges, but may have spiral lines (Lepocinclis)	216
216 (215')	Posterior end with an abrupt, spine-like tip	Lepocinclis ovum
216'	Posterior end rounded	Lepocinclis texta
217 (214')	Green plastids hidden by a red pigment in the cell	Euglena sanguinea
217'	No red pigment except for the eye spot	218
218 (217')	Plastids at least 1/4 the length of the cell	219
218'	Plastids discoid or at least shorter than 1/4 the length of the cell	220
219 (218)	Plastids two per cell	Euglena agilis
219'	Plastids several per cell, often extending radiately from the center	Euglena viridis
220 (218')	Posterior end extending as an abrupt colorless spine	221
220'	Posterior end rounded or at least with no colorless spine	222
221 (220)	Spiral markings very prominent and granular	Euglena spirogyra
221'	Spiral markings fairly prominent, not granular	Euglena oxyuris
222 (220')	Small; length 35-55μ	Euglena gracilis
222'	Medium to large; length 65μ or more	223
223 (222')	Medium in size; length 65-200μ	224
223'	Large in size; length 250-290μ	Euglena ehrenbergii

224 (223) Plastids with irregular edge, flagellum 2 times as long as cell.........Euglena polymorpha
224' Plastids with smooth edge, flagellum about 1/2 the length of the cell ....Euglena deses

225 (185') Cells distinctly bent (arcuate), with a spine or narrowing to a point at both ends.........226
225' Cells not arcuate 230

226 (225) Vacuole with particles showing Brownian movement at each end of cell. Cells not in clusters. (Closterium) 227
226' No terminal vacuoles. Cells may be in clusters or colonies........................228

227 (226) Cell wide, width 30-70µ ....Closterium moniliferum
227' Cell long and narrow, width up to 5µ ....Closterium aciculare

228 (226') Cell with a narrow abrupt spine at each blunt end ....Ophiocytium capitatum
228' No blunt ended cells with abrupt terminal spines 229

229 (228') Sharp pointed ends as separate colorless spines 193
229' Sharp pointed ends as part of the green protoplast 137

230 (225) One long spine at each end of cell 231
230' No long terminal spines 232

231 (230) Cell gradually narrowed to the spine 137
231' Cell abruptly narrowed to the spine ....Rhizosolenia gracilis

232 A regular pattern of fine lines or dots in the wall (diatoms) 233
232' No regular pattern of fine lines or dots in the wall 276

233 (50, 232) Cells circular in one (valve) view, short rectangular or square in other (girdle) view....234
233' Cells not circular in one view 240

234 (233) Valve surface with an inner and outer (marginal) pattern of striae (Cyclotella)........ 235
234' Valve surface with one continuous pattern of striae (Stephanodiscus)................ 238

235 (234) Cells small (4-10µ in diameter) ....Cyclotella glomerata
235' Cells medium to large (10-80 in diameter) 236

236 (235') Outer half of valve with two types of lines, one long, one short........................237
236' Outer half of valve with radial lines all alike ....Cyclotella meneghiniana

237 (236) Outer valve zone constituting more than 1/2 the diameter..............Cyclotella bodanica
237' Outer valve zone constituting more than 1/2 the diameter..............Cyclotella compta

238 (234') Cell 4-25µ in diameter 239
238' Cell 25-65µ in diameter ....Stephanodiscus niagarae

239 (238) Cell with two transverse bands, in girdle view ....Stephanodiscus binderanus
239' Cell without two transverse bands, in girdle view..............Stephanodiscus hantzschii

240 (233') Cells flat, oval (Cocconeis) 241
240' Cells neither flat nor oval 242

241 (240) Wall markings (striae) 18-20 in 10µ ....Cocconeis pediculus
241' Wall markings (striae) 23-25 in 10µ........................Cocconeis placentula

242 (240') Cell sigmoid in one view........................243
242' Cell not sigmoid in either round or point ended (valve) or square ended (girdle) surface view........................244

243 (242) Cell sigmoid in valve surface view ....Gyrosigma attenuatum
243' Cell sigmoid in square ended (girdle) surface view....................Nitzschia acicularis

244 (242') Cell longitudinally unsymmetrical in at least one view........................245
244' Cell longitudinally symmetrical........................254

245 (244) Cell wall with both fine and coarse transverse lines (striae and costae)............... 246
245' Cell wall with fine transverse lines (striae) only........................247

246 (245) Valve face about as wide at middle as girdle face .... *Epithemia turgida*
246' Valve face 1/2 or less as wide at middle as girdle face .... *Rhopalodia gibba*

247 (245) Line of pores and raphe located at edge of valve face 248
247' Raphe not at extreme edge of valve face 250

248 (247) Raphe of each valve adjacent to the same girdle surface .... *Hantzschia amphioxys*
248' Raphe of each valve adjacent to different girdle surfaces (*Nitzschia*) 249

249 (248') Cell 20-65μ long .... *Nitzschia palea*
249' Cell 70-180μ long .... *Nitzschia linearis*

250 (247') Cell longitudinally unsymmetrical in valve view 251
250' Cell longitudinally unsymmetrical in girdle view .... *Achnanthes microcephala*

251 (250) Raphe bent toward one side at the middle .... *Amphora ovalis*
251' Raphe a smooth curve throughout (*Cymbella*) 252

252 (251') (246) Cell only slightly unsymmetrical .... *Cymbella cesati*
252' Cell distinctly unsymmetrical 253

253 (252') Striations distinctly cross lined; width 10-30μ .... *Cymbella prostrata*
253' Striations indistinctly cross lined; width 5-12μ .... *Cymbella ventricosa*

254 (244') Longitudinal line (raphe) and prominent marginal markings near both edges of valve 255
254' No marginal longitudinal line (raphe) nor keel; raphe or pseudoraphe median 257

255 (254) Margin of girdle face wavy .... *Cymatopleura solea*
255' Margin of girdle face straight (*Surirella*) 256

256 (255') Cell width 8-23μ .... *Surirella ovata*
256' Cell width 40-60μ .... *Surirella splendida*

257 (254) Gridle face generally in view and with two or more prominent longitudinal lines. In valve view, swollen central oval portion bounded by a line. (*Tabellaria*) 258
257' Girdle face with less than two prominent longitudinal lines. In valve view, whole central portion not bounded by a line 259

258 (257) Girdle face less than 1/4 as wide as long .... *Tabellaria fenestrata*
258' Girdle face more than 1/2 as wide as long .... *Tabellaria flocculosa*

259 (257') Valve face with both coarse and fine transverse lines .... *Diatoma vulgare*
259' Valve face with transverse lines, if visible, alike in thickness 260

260 (259') Valve face naviculoid; true raphe present 261
260' Valve face linear to linear-lanceolate; true raphe absent 270

261 (260) Valve face with wide transverse lines (costae) (*Pinnularia*) 262
261' Valve face with thin transverse lines (striae) 263

262 (261) Cell 5-6μ broad .... *Pinnularia subcapitata*
262' Cell 34-50μ broad .... *Pinnularia nobilis*

263 (261') Transverse lines (striae) absent across transverse axis of valve face .... *Stauroneis phoenicenteron*
263' Transverse lines (striae) present across transverse axis of valve face 264

264 (263') Raphe strictly median (*Navicula*) 265
264' Raphe located slightly to one side 252

265 (264) Ends of valve face abruptly narrowed to a beak .... *Navicula exigua* var. *capitata*
265' Ends of valve face gradually narrowed 266

266 (265') Most of striations strictly transverse .... *Navicula gracilis*
266' Most of striations radial (oblique) 267

267 (266') Striae distinctly composed of dots (punctae) .... Navicula lanceolata
267' Striae essentially as continuous lines 268

268 (267') Central clear area on valve face rectangular .... Navicula graciloides
268' Central clear area on valve face oval 269

269 (268') Cell length 29-40μ; ends slightly capitate .... Navicula cryptocephala
269' Cell length 30-120μ; ends not capitate .... Navicula radiosa

270 (260') Knob at one end larger than at the other (Asterionella) 189
270' Terminal knobs if present equal in size (Synedra) 271

271 (270') Clear space (pseudonodule) in central area .... Synedra pulchella
271' No pseudonodule in central area 272

272 (271') Sides parallel in valve view; each end with an enlarged nodule .... Synedra capitata
272' Sides converging to the ends in valve view 273

273 (272') Valve linear to lanceolate-linear; 8-12 striae per 10μ .... Synedra ulna
273' Valve narrowly linear-lanceolate, 12-18 striae per 10μ 274

274 Valve 5-6μ wide .... Synedra acus
274' Valve 2-4μ wide 275

275 (274') Cells up to 65 times as long as wide; central area absent to small oval
.... Synedra acus var. radians
275' Cells 90-120 times as long as wide; central area rectangular
.... Synedra acus var. augustissima

276 (232') Green to brown pigment in one or more plastids 277
276' No plastids; blue and green pigments throughout protoplast 284

277 (276) Cells long and narrow or flat 233
277' Cells rounded 278

278 (277') Straight, flat wall between adjacent cells in colonies .... Phytoconis botryoides
278' Rounded wall between adjacent cells in colonies 279

279 (278') Cell either with 2 opposite wall knobs or colony of 2-4 cells surrounded by distinct membrane or both 164
279' Cell without 2 wall knobs; colony not of 2-4 cells surrounded by distince membrane 280

280 (279') Cells essentially similar in size within the colony 281
280' Cells of very different sizes within the colony .... Chlorococcum humicola

281 (159') Cells embedded in an extensive gelatinous matrix .... Palmella mucosa
281' Cells with little or no gelatinous matrix around them (Chlorella) 282

282 (281') Cells rounded 283
282' Cells ellipsoidal to ovoid .... Chlorella ellipsoidea

283 (282) Cell 5-10μ in diameter; pyrenoid indistinct .... Chlorella vulgaris
283' Cell 3-5μ in diameter; pyrenoid distinct .... Chlorella pyrenoidosa

284 (276') Cell a spiral rod 285
284' Cell not a spiral rod 286

285 (25) Thread septate (with crosswalls) .... Arthrospira jenneri
285' Thread non-septate (without crosswalls) .... Spirulina nordstedtii

286 (172) (284') Cells dividing in a plane at right angles to the long axis .... Coccochloris stagnina
286' (172') Cells sperical or dividing in a plane parallel to the long axis (Anacystis) 287

287 (286') Cell containing pseudovacuoles .... Anacystis cyanea
287' Cell not containing pseudovacuoles 288

288 (287') Cell 2-6µ in diameter; sheath often colored .... *Anacystis montana*
288' Cell 6-50µ in diameter; sheath colorless 289

289 (288') Cell 6-12µ in diameter; cells in colonies are mostly spherical......... *Anacystis thermalis*
289' Cell 12-50µ in diameter; cells in colonies are often angular........... *Anacystis dimidiata*

This outline was prepared by C. M. Palmer, former Aquatic Biologist, Biological Treatment Research Activities, Cincinnati Water Research Laboratory, FWPCA.

Descriptors: Algae, Identification Keys

A KEY FOR THE INITIAL SEPARATION OF SOME COMMON PLANKTON ORGANISMS

1. No chlorophyll present, unless through ingestion 8
1. At least some chlorophyll present 2

    2. Pigments not in plastids . . . . Cyanophyta
    2. Pigments in one or more plastids 3

3. Cell wall of over-lapping halves and distinctly sculptured . . . . . . Bacillariophyta
3. Cell wall not of over-lapping halves, or if so, then not sculptured 4

    4. Pyrenoids present; color usually bright green . . . . Chlorophyta
    4. Pyrenoids absent; color green, yellow-green or yellow-brown 5

5. Bright green, motile, usually with one anterior flagellum . . . . Euglenophyta
5. Yellowish to brownish, motile or not 6

    6. With a distinct lateral groove, motile . . . . Pyrrophyta
    6. Without a lateral groove 7

7. Seldom motile; unicellular, colonial or filamentous . . . . Xanthophyta
7. Motile, unicellular or colonial . . . . Chrysophyta

    8. Unicellular; naked or enclosed in a smooth or sculptured shell 9
    8. Multicellular; body usually with a distinct exoskeleton 11

9. Amoeboid; sometimes with shell, no cilia or flagella . . . . . Ameoboid Protozoa
9. Actively motile; never with shell; cilia or flagella obvious 10

    10. Body more or less covered by short cilia; movement "darting" . . . . Ciliate Protozoa
    10. Body with one or more flexible whip-like falgella; movement "continous" . . . . Flagellate Protozoa

11. Shell bivalved (clam-like) 12
11. Shell not composed of two halves 13

    12. With distinct head anterior to valves . . . . Cladocera
    12. No head anterior to valves . . . . Ostracoda

13. Usually microscopic; body extended into a tail or foot with one or more toes . . . . Rotifera
13. Usually macroscopic if mature 14

    14. Appendages bilateral; head not prominent . . . . Copepoda
    14. Appendages unilateral; head prominent . . . . Phyllopoda

CHLOROPHYTA

A Key to Some of the Common Filamentous Genera

1. Filaments unbranched 2
1. Filaments branched (sometimes parenchymatous) 12

2. Chloroplast single, parietal band 3
2. Chloroplast one or more, if parietal not a band 5

3. Chloroplast encircling more than half the cell (Napkin-ring like) . . . . . . Ulothrix
3. Chloroplast encircling less than half the cell 4

4. Filaments of indefinite length; cells with square ends . . . . Hormidium
4. Filaments usually short, of 3-8 cells, with ends round . . . . . . Stichococcus

5. Cell wall of H pieces; pyrenoids lacking . . . . Microspora
5. Cell wall not of H pieces 6

6. Some cells with apical caps . . . . Oedogonium
6. Cells without apical caps 7

7. Chloroplast (s) parietal 8
7. Chloroplast (s) axial 9

8. Chloroplast one or more, spiral bands . . . . Spirogyra
8. Chloroplast several, longitudinal bands . . . . Sirogonium

9. Cell walls without a median constriction 10
9. Cell walls with a median constriction 11

10. Chloroplast stellate . . . . Zygnema
10. Chloroplast an axial band . . . . Mougeotia

11. Filaments cylindrical . . . . Hyalotheca
11. Filaments triangular, twisted . . . . Desmidium

12. Coenocytic dichotomously branched, with constrictions . . . . . Dichotomosiphon
12. Filaments with regular cross walls 13

13. Parenchymatous, discoid, epiphytic . . . . Coleochaete
13. Not parenchymatous 14

14. Main axis cells much broader than branch cells . . . . Draparnaldia
14. Main axis and branch cells approximately the same breadth 16

15. Main axis and lateral branches attenuated into long multicellualr hairs 16
15. Axis and branches not attenuated into long multicellular hairs 17

16. Sparsely or loosely branched . . . . Stigeoclonium
16. Densely and compactly branched . . . . Chaetophora

17. Cells bearing swollen or bulbous-based setae 18
17. Cells without setae 19

18. Swollen-based setae on dorsal surface of cells; prostrate epiphytes; little or not al all branched . . . . Aphanochaete
18. Bulbous-based setae terminal on branches; not prostrate epiphytes . . . . Bulbochaete

19. With terminal and/or intercalary akinites . . . . Pithophora
19. Without distinctive akinites 20

20. Cells of erect filaments becoming shorter and broader toward filament apex; usually growing on back of turtles; branching only from base . . . . Basicladia
20. Thallus not as above 21

21. Filaments irregularly branched; branches short 1 - or few celled . . . Rhizoclonium
21. Filaments repeatedly branched; branches narrowed toward tips . . . . . Cladophora

CHLOROPHYTA

A Key to Some Common Non-Filamentous Genera

1. Unicellular 2
1. Colonial 27

2. Motile in vegetative state, flagella 2-4 3
2. Non-motile in vegetative state 5

3. Cells with 2 flagella 4
3. Cells with 4 flagella . . . . . . Carteria

4. Cell enclosed by bicovex shell . . . . . . Phacotus
4. Cell not enclosed by a shell . . . . . . Chlamydomonas

5. Cells with median constriction (often slight), or of chloroplast only 6
5. Cells without a median constriction 15

6. Cells lunate . . . . . . Closterium
6. Cells not lunate in any degree 7

7. Cells cylindrical, noticeably longer than broad 8
7. Cells almost never cylindrical; flattened or triangular in apical view 9

8. Length 2-3 times the breadth, contriction nearly lacking . . . . . Cylindrocystis
8. Length much greater than breadth, nodulose at constriction . . . . . Pleurotaenium

9. Cells triangular in end view . . . . . . Staurastrum
9. Cells not triangular in end view 10

10. Semicells with lateral incisions, appearing lobed 11
10. Semicells without lateral incisions 12

11. Lateral incisions few, shallow, lobes rounded . . . . . . Euastrum
11. Lateral incisions many, deep, lobes angular . . . . . . Micrasterias

12. Semicells with radiating arms . . . . . . Staurastrum
12. Semicells without arms; spines, granules, or teeth may be present 13

13. Semicells without spines . . . . . . Cosmarium
13. Semicells with spines 14

14. Spines few, usually at the apical corners . . . . . . Arthrodesmus
14. Spines numerous, scattered . . . . . . Xanthidium

15. Cells elongate, sometimes needle-like 16
15. Cells spherical, ovid, angular; not needle-like 18

16. Cells with terminal setae . . . . . . Schroederia
16. Cells without terminal setae 17

17. Cells acicular, without a row of pyrenoids . . . . Ankistrodesmus
17. Cells acicular, very long, with a row of 10-12 pyrenoids . . . . Closteropsis

18. Cells without spines or processes 19
18. Cells with spines or processes 23

19. Cells embedded in a gelatinous matrix 20
19. Cells without a gelatinous matrix 21

20. Gelatin obvious, lamellate; chloroplast cup-shaped . . . . Gloeocystis
20. Gelatin sometimes obvious, chloroplast, star-like . . . . Asterococcus

21. Cells spherical 22
21. Cells angular . . . . Tetraedron

22. Cell wall smooth . . . . Chlorella
22. Cell wall sculptured . . . . Trochiscia

23. Cells angular 24
23. Cells spherical or oval, with spines 23

24. Angles with furcated processes . . . . Tetraedron
24. Angles with spines . . . . Polyedriopsis

25. Cells spherical, spines delicate . . . . Golenkinia
25. Cells oval, spines evident 26

26. Spines localized at ends of cell . . . . Lagerheimii
26. Spines distributed over cell . . . . Franceia

27. Motile, each cell with 2 equal-length flagella 28
27. Non-motile invegetative state 33

28. Colony a "flat" plate 29
28. Colony spherical or ovid 30

29. Colony "horse-shoe" shaped . . . . Platydorina
29. Colony quadriangular or circular . . . . Gonium

30. Cells 8-16, crowded-pyriform . . . . Pandorina
30. Cells more than 16, not crowded, spherical or nearly so 31

31. Cells more than 300 in number . . . . Volvox
31. Cells less than 300 in number 32

32. Cells (16) - 32 in number . . . . Eudorina
32. Cells 64-128 - (256) in number . . . . Pleodorina

33. Cells of colony lying in one plane 34
33. Cells not in a conspicuous single plane 37

34. Colony circular (rarely cruciate) . . . . Pediastrum
34. Colony not circular 35

35. Colony a flat strip; cells side by side . . . . Scenedesmus
35. Colony quadriangular 36

36. Colony usually large, cells in 4's, no spines . . . . .Crucigenia
36. Colony of 4 cells, each with 1 or 2 marginal spines . . . . Tetrastrum

37. Cells acicular (needle-like) . . . . .Ankistrodesmus
37. Cells not acicular 38

38. Colony without a gelatinous envelope 39
38. Colony with a more or less conspicuous gelatinous envelope 47

39. 2 - 8 oval enclosed by a distinct sheath . . . . Oocystis
39. Cells not enclosed by a sheath 40

40. Cells with long spines or setae 41
40. Cells without spines or setae 42

41. Colony pyramidate, cell spherical, long spines . . . . .Errerella
41. Colony quadrate, or a tetrahedron, long setae . . . . Micractinium

42. Cells linear, radiating from a common center . . . . Actinastrum
42. Cells no linear 43

43. Cells strongly lunate, often "back-to-back" . . . . Selenastrum
43. Cells not lunate 44

44. Cells arranged in a hallow sphere 45
44. Cells not arranged in a hallow sphere 46

45. Cells spherical, sometimes joined by processes . . . . Coelastrum
45. Cells not spherical, outer angles extended into stout, blunt teeth or spines . . . . Sorastrum

46. Cells uniform, spherical, in groups of 4 - 8 . . . . .Westella
46. Cells not uniform, ellipsoid (oblong) or reniform . . . . Dimorphococcus

47. Cells curved to strongly lunate 48
47. Cells not curved or lunate 49

48. Cells lunate, loosely arranged in colony . . . . Kirchneriella
48. Cells curved or reniform, colony compact, distinct . . . . Nephrocytium

49. Cells connected by branching central strands . . . . Dictyosphaerium
49. Cells not connected by stands 50

50. Cells cylindrical or fusiform 51
50. Cells spherical or slightly ovoid 52

51. Cells in parallel "bundles" of 2 - 8 . . . . Quadrigula
51. Cells longitudinally arranged, not grouped laterally . . . . Elakatothrix

52. Cells ellipsoid or ovoid, envelope lamellated . . . . Gloeocystis
52. Cells spherical, or nearly so 53

53. Chloroplast axial, star-shaped . . . . Asterococcus
53. Chloroplast parietal, not star-shaped 54

54. Cells enclosed by lamellated sheaths . . . . .Gloeocystis
54. Cells in homogenous envelopes . . . . .Sphaerocystis

EUGLENOPHYTA

1. Vegetative cells sessile . . . . *Colacium*
1. Vegetative cells motile 2

    2. Cells with chlorophyll 3
    2. Cells without chlorophyll 8

3. Protoplast within a lorica or test . . . . *Trachelomonas*
3. Protoplast naked, no lorica 4

    4. Body strongly metabolic . . . . *Euglena*
    4. Body rigid 5

5. With two laminate, longitudinal chloroplasts . . . . *Chryptoglena*
5. With numerous chloroplasts 6

    6. Body conspicuously flattened, sometimes twisted . . . . *Phacus*
    6. Body not compressed, radially symmetrical 6

7. Body broadly ellipsoid to ovoid . . . . *Lepocinclis*
7. Body elongate, narrow . . . . *Euglena*

    8. Cells with one flagellum . . . . *Astasia*
    8. Cells with two flagella . . . . *Peranema*

KEY TO SOME COMMON DIATOM GENERA (BACILLARIOPHYTA) OF MICHIGAN

Diatoms in Valve View

1. Valves without a dividing line or cleft; markings of valve radiate about a central point. (centric diatom genera) 2

2. Frustules usually in filaments or zig-zag chains; rectangular in girdle view; valve round, oblong, triangular or elongate 3

3. Frustules cylindrical; markings prominent on girdle; sulcus present; seldom seen in valve view . . . . Melosira

3. Frustule not cylindrical 4

4. Valve ovate to oblong; two horns or processes present on valve face, scatter small spines often present . . . . Biddulphia

4. Valve not ovate to oblong, horns or processes absent 5

5. Valve face appearing as two; three sided pieces giving the appearance of six processes . . . . Hydrosira

5. Valve face three to several times longer than broads; margins undulate: "costae" evident . . . . Terpsinoe

2. Frustules usually solitary (sometimes forming short chains) 6

6. Frustules usually elongated; many intercalary bands, frustules cylindrical 7

7. Each valve with a single long spine . . . . Rhizosolenia

7. Each valve with two long spines . . . . Attheya

6. Valves discoid; cylindrical; or spherical; somtimes with spines or processes 8

8. Ornamentation of valves in two concentric parts of unlike pattern . . . . Cyclotella

8. Ornamentation of valves radiate; continuous from center to margin of valves 9

9. Ornamentation of valves distinctly radiate; rows of punctae single at center becoming multiseriate at the margin; margin of valve with recurved spines . . . . Stephanodiscus

9. Ornamentation of valves not distinctly radiate or becoming multiseriate at margin 10

10. Isolated large punctum evident at the margin spines not evident . . . . Thalassiosira

10. Isolated punctum not evident at the margin, short spines present . . . . Cascinodiscus

1. Valve with a dividing line or cleft; marking of wall bilaterally disposed to an axial or excentric line (pennate diatom genera) 11

11. Both valves with a pseudoraphe 12

12. Valves asymetrical to one axis 13

13. Valve asmetrical to longitudinal axis, striae present . . Ceratoneis

13. Valve asymetrical to transverse axis 14

14. Valves clavate 15

14. Valves not clavate; striae present; valves with unequal capitate ends; often forming star like colonies . . Asterionella

15. "Costae" present, frustules may be joined face to face to form fan like filaments . . . . . . Meridion

15. "Costae: present, frustules single (appears as asymetrical Fragilaria) . . . . Opephora

12. Valves symetrical to both axes 16

16. Frustules septate or "costate"; often appearing in zig-zag chains 17

17. Septae present; usually many partially septate intercalary bands; valves triundulate . . . . Tabellaria

17. Septae absent; prominant "costae" on valve . . . Diatoma

16. Frustules occuring free or attached in filaments; sometimes forming fascicles 18

18. Frustules typically forming long filaments; usually not more than 5 or 6 times longer than broads; often appearing costate . . . . Fragilaria

18. Frustules usually solitary or forming fascicles; usually many times longer than broad . . . . Synedra
(note: the above two genera are actually seperated only on the basis of growth habit)

11. At least one valve with a pseudoraphe 19

19. One valve with a true raphe the other valve with a pseudoraphe 20

20. Valve asymetrical to the transverse axis; partial terminal septae; bent about the transverse axis . . . . Rhoicosphenia

20. Valves symetrical to both axes 21

21. Valve elliptical; valves with a marginal and/or submarginal hyaline ring; often loculiferous; bent about the longitudinal axis . . . . Cocconeis

21. Valves usually lanceolate or linera lanceolate; bent around the transverse axis . . . . Achnanthes (Those with a sigmoid raphe are sometimes put in Achnanthidium or Eucocconeis)

19. Both valves with a raphe 22

22. Raphe median or nearly so, never completely marginal; not in a canal 23

23. Valves sigmoid in outline 24

24. Raphe sigmoid; punctae in two series; one transverse and one longitudinal row forming a 90° angle . . . . Gyrosigma

24. Raphe sigmoid; punctae in three series forming angles of other than 90° . . . . Pleurosigma

23. Valve not sigmoid in outline 25

25. Valves symetrical to both axes 26

26. Frustules with septate intercalary bands 27

27. Intercalary bands with marginal loculi, punctae distinct . . . . Mastagloia

27. Intercalary bands with two large faramen along apical axis, punctae indistinct . . . . Diatomella

26. Frustules without septate intercalary bands 28

28. Valve face with a sigmoid saggital keel; "hourglass" shape outline in girdle view . . . Amphiprora

28. Valve face without a sigmoid saggital keel 29

29. Valve with undulate or zig-zag irregular logitudinal lines or blank spaces . . . . Anomoeneis

29. Valve without undulate or zig-zag irregular logitudinal lines or blank spaces 30

30. Valve with thickened, non-punctate central area; (stauros) pseudoseptae sometimes present, longitudinal lines and blank spaces lacking . . . . *Stauroneis*

30. Valve with or without stauros, septal absent 31

31. Valve with longitudinal lines or blank spaces 32

32. Proximal ends of raphe usually curved in opposite directions; "defaut regularier" toward valve apices; longitudinal blank spaces . . . . *Neidium*

32. Proximal ends of raphe straight; valves with fine striae that appear as costae; longitudinal line near margin . . . . *Caloneis*

31. Valves without longitudinal lines or blank spaces 33

33. Valves with siliceous ribs along each side of the raphe 34

34. Raphe bisects siliceous ribs on valve; central area small and orbicular; striae and punctae very distinct . . . . *Diploneis*

34. Raphe short; less than 1/2 length of valve; central area long and narrow; terminal nodules evident, elongate 35

35. Raphe short; 1/4 or less the length of the valve; striae not evident . . . . *Amphipleura*

35. Raphe longer; usually about 1/3 the length of the valve; striae usually fine but evident . . . *Frustulia*

33. Valve without siliceous ribs 36

36. Valves with smooth transverse costae; raphe often ribbon like; . . . . *Pinnularia*

36. Valves with transverse striae 37

37. Raphe sigmoid . . . . *Scoliopleura*

37. Raphe straight 38

38. Raphe in straight and raised keel . . . . *Tropodoneis*

38. Raphe straight and not in a keel 39

39. Striae daubly punctate, central area long and narrow . . . *Brebessonia*

39. Striae single to lineate, central area variable . . . . *Navicula*

25. Valves symetical to one axis only 40

40. Valves symetrical to the longitudinal axis 41

41. Punctae in one series; longitudinal line absent . . . . . . Gomphonema

41. Punctae in two series; longitudinal line present . . . . . . Gomphoneis

40. Valves symetrical to transverse axis 42

42. Raphe short; vestigial terminal; with evident terminal nodules, central nodule lacking 43

43. Colonial; forming tree like colonies; valves usually with evident spines . . . . Desmogonium

43. Usually not in colonies or if colonial, forming only short chains or stellate clumps 44

44. Cells shaped like the femur of a chicken . . . . Actinella

44. Valves various shaped; lunate to nearly straight; valve often with undulate dorsal and/or ventral margin; raphe prominant in girdle view 45

45. Dorsal margin convex, ventral margin slightly concave, both margins sinvate-dentate . . . Amphicampa

45. Dorsal margin convex, ventral margin straight to concave, one, both or neither margin wavy, pseudoraphe often present on ventral margin . . . Eunotia

42. Raphe not vestigial; usually as nearly as long as the valve; valves usually cymbiform 46

46. Valves convex; central nodule usually lies very close to the ventral margin; both raphe visible in girdle view . . . . Amphora

46. Valves flat or nearly so; raphe a smooth curve with the same curvature as the axial field; raphe not visible in girdle view . . . . Cymbella

22. Raphe marginal and in a canal 47

47. Valves with a single canal that is usually marginal but may appear to be somewhat central 48

48. Valves symetrical to both axes 49

49. Transverse internal septae that appear as "costae"; canal nearly median . . . . Denticula

49. Transverse "costae" lacking; carnial dots present . . . Nitzschia

48. Valves asymetrical to longitudinal axis 50

50. "Costae" quite evident 51

51. Axial field forming an acute angle at the central nodule; raphe along the ventral margin of valve . . . . . Ephithemia

51. Axial field forming a less acute angle at the central nodule; raphe along the dorsal margin of the valve . . Rhopalodia

50. "Costae" not evident; carnial dots along the raphe 52

52. Raphe of one valve diagonally opposite the raphe on the other valve . . . . Nitzschia

52. Raphe of one valve directly opposite the raphe on the other valve . . . . Hantzschia

47. Valves with a canal next to both lateral margins 53

53. Valve face transversely undulate; band of short costae along each lateral margin appearing like a row of beads . . . . .Cymatopleura

53. Valve face not transversely undulate 54

54. Valve shaped like a saddle . . . . .Campylodiscus

54. Valve face flat; either isopolar or heteropolar; sometimes the frustule is slightly spiral in shape . . . . Surirella

CHRYSOPHYTA

A Key to Some More or Less Common Genera

1.	Filamentous, branched	*Phaeothamnion*
1.	Not filamentous	2
2.	Unicellular	3
2.	Colonial	7
3.	Protoplast enclosed by a lorica	4
3.	Protoplast not enclosed by a lorica	6
4.	Epiphytic or epizooic	5
4.	Motile; cells with siliceous scales many of which have long, siliceous spines	*Mallomonas*
5.	Epiphytic; lorica flask-shaped	*Lagynion*
5.	Epiphytic or epizooic; lorica cylindrical	*Epipyxis*(= *Hyalobryon*)
6.	Motile; protoplast naked	*Ochromonas* (and assoc.)
6.	Non-motile; protoplast with long delicate, pseudopodia	*Rhizochrysis*
7.	Sessile; each cell in a long, cylindrical lorica	*Epipyxis* (Hyalobryon)
7.	Motile	8
8.	Each cell within a companulate, basally pointed lorica	*Dinobryon*
8.	Lorica absent	9
9.	Colony bracelet-shaped	*Cyclonexis*
9.	Colony spherical	10
10.	Colony bristling with long siliceous rods	*Chrysosphaerella*
10.	Colony without siliceous rods from each cell	11
11.	Colonies not enclosed by a gelatinous sheath	*Synura*
11.	Colonies enclosed by a distinct gelatinous sheath	12
12.	Shorter flagellum more than 1/2 length of longer flagellum	*Uroglenopsis*
12.	Shorter flagellum less than 1/2 length of longer flagellum	*Uroglena*

CYANOPHYTA

A Key to Some of the Common Genera

1. Cells not in trichomes; unicellular or colonial 2
1. Cells in trichomes 10

2. Colony with some regular arrangement of cells 3
2. Colony amorphous, no definite form 6

3. Colony a flat plate 4
3. Colony spherical, cells peripheral 5

4. Cells regularly arranged . . . . Merismopedia
4. Cells irregularly arranged . . . . Holopedium

5. Colony with a central branching system . . . . Gomphosphaeria
5. Colony without a central branching system . . . . Coelosphaerium

6. Colony many celled 7
6. Colony mostly few celled 9

7. Cells elongate . . . . Aphanothece
7. Cells spherical 8

8. Cells close together . . . . Microcystis
8. Cells more than 2-3 diameters apart . . . . Aphanocapsa

9. Cells usually hemispherical, with or without definite gelatinous sheaths . . Chroococcus
9. Cells spherical or ovaod, gelatinous sheaths very distinct . . . . Gloeocapsa

10. Trichomes without sheath (not filamentous) 11
10. Trichomes in a sheath (filamentous) 20

11. Heterocysts absent 12
11. Heterocysts present 14

12. Trichomes straight . . . . Oscillatoria
12. Trichomes regulary spiraled 13

13. Cross walls distinct . . . . Arthrospira
13. Cross walls lacking . . . . Spirulina

14. Heterocysts terminal 15
14. Heterocysts intercalary 18

15. Trichomes cylindrical . . . . Cylindrospremum
15. Trichomes attenuate 16

16. Trichomes solitary . . . . Calothrix
16. Trichomes in masses 17

17. Trichomes without akinetes . . . . Rivularia
17. Trichomes with akinetes . . . . Gloeotrichia

18. Trichomes straight, parallel in bundles . . . . Aphanizomenon
18. Trichomes solitary, or if in masses, not parallel 19

19. Trichomes solitary, or if numerous, then not in a firm gelatinous matrix . . . . Anabaena
19. Trichomes entangled in a firm gelatinous matrix . . . . Nostoc

20. Many parallel trichomes in a sheath . . . . Microcoleus
20. A single trichome or row of trichomes in a sheath 21

21. Filaments not branched 22
21. Filaments branched 23

22. Sheath obvious firm . . . . Lyngbya
22. Sheath indistinct, delicate . . . . Phormidium

23. Filaments with false branching 24
23. Filaments with true branching 26

24. Without heterocysts . . . . .Plectonema
24. With heterocysts 25

25. False branches arising single . . . . Tolypothrix
25. False branches in pairs . . . . Scytonema

26. Trichomes always uniseriate . . . . Haplosiphon
26. Trichomes wholly or in part nultiseriate . . . . .Stigonema

XANTHOPHYCEAE

A Key to Some Common Genera

1. Filamentous 2
1. Not filamentous 4

    2. Filaments branched, siphonaceaous . . . . Vaucheria
    2. Filaments not branched 3

3. Cell wall of stout H pieces, cells sometimes barrel-shaped . . . . Tribonema
3. Cell wall of delicate H pieces, cells short and cylindrical . . . . Bumilleria

    4. Cells embedded in a gelatinous matrix 5
    4. Cells not embedded in a gelatinous matrix 7

5. Colonial gelatinous envelope dichotomously branched . . . . Mischococcus
5. Colonial gelatinous envelope not branched 6

    6. Colonial envelope, tough "heavy" cartilaginous . . . . Botryococcus
    6. Colonial envelope watery; colonies small, free floating . . . . . . Chlorobotrys

7. Cells epiphytic 8
7. Cells not epiphytic 11

    8. Stipe long, seta-like . . . . Stipitococcus
    8. Stipe short; or cell-sessile . . . . Peroniella

9. Cell vase-like, apex flattened . . . . Stipitococcus
9. Cell oval or spherical . . . . Peroniella

    10. Cells cylindrical, ends broadly rounded . . . . Ophiocytium
    10. Cells not cylindrical . . . . Characiopsis

11. Cells cylindrical, straight or contorted . . . . Ophiocytium
11. Cells globose, with rhyzoids, on soil . . . . Botrydium

Acicular: needle-like in shape. (*Ankistrodesmus*)

Aerial: algal habitat on moist soil, rocks, trees, etc.; involving a thin film of water; sometimes only somewhat aerial.

Akinete: A type of spore formed by the transformation of a vegetative cell into a thick-walled resting cell, containing a concentration of food material. (*Pithophora*)

Amoeboid: like an amoeba; creeping by extensions of highly plastic protoplasm (pseudopodia). (*Chrysamoeba*)

Amorphous: without definite shape; without regular form.

Anastomose: to separate and come together again; a meshwork.

Antapical: the posterior or rear pole or region of an organism, or of a colony of cells.

Anterior: the forward end; toward the top.

Antheridium: a single cell or a series of cells in which male gametes are produced; a multicellular, globular male organ in the Characeae, more properly called a globule (a complicated and specialized branch in which antheridial cells are produced.

Antherozoid: male sex cell; sperm.

Apex: the summit, the terminus, end of a projection, of an incision, or of a filament of cells.

Apical: Forward tip.

Aplanospore: non-motile, thick-walled spore formed many within an unspecialized vegetative cell; a small resting spore.

Arbuscular: branched or growing like a tree or bush.

Armored: See theca.

Attenuate: narrowing to a point or becoming reduced in diameter. (*Gloeotrichia*)

Autospores: spore-like bodies cut out of the contents of a cell which are small replicas of the parent cell and which only enlarge to become mature plants. (*Coelastrum*)

Axial: along a median line bisecting an object either transversely or longitudinally (especially the later, e.g. an axial chloroplast).

Bacilliform: rod-shaped.

Bilobed: with two lobes or extensions.

Bipapillate: with two small protrusions; nipples.

Biscuit-shaped: a thickened pad; Pillow-shaped.

Bivalve (wall): wall of cell which is in two sections, one usually slightly larger than the others.

Blepharoplast: a granular body in a swimming organism from which a flagellum arises.

Bristle: a stiff hair; a needle-like spine. (*Mallomonas*)

Capitate: with an enlargement or a head at one end. (as in some species of *Oscillatoria*)

Carotene: Orange-yellow plant pigment of which there are four kinds in algae; a hydrocarbon, C, H.

Chlorophyll: a green pigment of which there are five kinds in the algae chlorophyll-a occurring in all of the algal divisions.

Chloroplast: a body of various shapes within the cell containing the pigments of which chlorophyll is the predominating one.

Chromatophore: body within a cell contining the pigments of which some other tan chlorophyll is the predominating one; may be red, yellow, yellow-green or brown.

Chrysolaminarin: See leucosin.

Coenobium: a colony with 2^N number of cells. (*Scenedesmus*)

Coenocytic: with multinucleate cells, or cell-like units; a multinucleate, non-cellular plant. (*Vaucheria*)

Collar: A thickened ring or neck surrounding the opening in a shell or lorica through which a flagellum projects from the inclosed organism. (*Trachelomonas*)

Colony: a group or closely associated cluster of cells, adjoined or merely inclosed by a a common investing mucilage or sheath; cells not arranged in a linear series to form a filament; either aggregate or coenobium.

Constricted: cut in or incised, usually form two opposite points on a cell so that an isthmus is formed between two parts or cell halves; indented as at the joints between cells of a filament. (*Cosmarium*)

Contractile vacuole: a small vacuole (cavity) which is bounded by a membrane that pulsates, expanding and contracting.

Crenulate: wavy with small scallops; with small crenations.

Crescent: an arc of a circle; a curved figure tapering to horn-like points from a wider, cylindrical midregion.

Cross wall: a cross partition.

Cup-shaped: a more or less complete plate (as a chloroplast) which lies just within the cell wall, open at one side to form a cup.

Cylindrical: a figure, round in cross section, elongate with parallel lateral margins when seen from the side, the ends square or truncate. (Hyalotheca)

Daughter cells: cells produced directly from the division of a primary or parent cell; cells produced from the same mother cell.

Dichotomous: dividing or branched by repeated forkings, usually into two equal portions or segments.

Disc; Disc-shaped: a flat (usually circular) figure: a circular plate.

Distal: the forwar or anterior end or region as opposed to the basal end.

Ellipsoid: an ellipse, a plane figure with curved margins, the poles more sharply rounded than the lateral margins of an elongate figure.

Epiphyte: living upon a plant, sometimes living internally also.

Euplankton: true or openwater plankton (floating) organisms.

Eye-spot: a granular or complex of granules (red or brown) sensitive to light and related to responses to light by swimming organisms of spores. (Pandorina)

False Branch: a branch formed by lateral growth of one or both ends of a broken filament; a branch not formed by lateral division of cells in an unbroken filament. (Tolypothrix)

Filament: a thread of cells; one or more rows of cells; in the blue-green algae the thread of cells together with a sheath that may be present, the thread of cells alone referred to as a trichome.

Flagellum (flagella): a relatively coarse, whip-like organ of locomotion, arising from a special granule, the blepharoplast, within a cell. (Euglena)

Fucoxanthin: a brown pigment predominant in the Phaeophyta and Chrysophyta. (Synura)

Fusiform: a figure broadest in the midregion and gradually tapering to both poles which may be acute or bluntly rounded; shaped like a spindle. (Closterium)

Gamete: a sex cell; cells which unite to produce a fertilized egg or zygospore.

Gas vacuole: See pseudovacuole.

Gelatin (gelatinous): a mucilage-like substance.

Glycogen: a starch-like storage product questionably identified in food granules of the Cyanopjyta. (Chroococcus)

Gregarious: an association; groupings of individuals not necessarily joined together but closely associated.

Gullet: a canal leading from the opening of flagellated cells into the reservoir in the anterior end. (Euglena)

Gypsum: granules of calcium sulphate which occur in the vacuoles of some desmids. (Closterium)

Haematochrome: a red or orange pigment, especially in some Chlorophyta and Euglenophyta, which masks the green chlorophyll.

Heterocyst: an enlarged cell in some of the filamentous blue-green algae, usually empty and different in shape from the vegetative cells, (Anabeana)

Hold-fast cell: a basal cell of a filament or thallus, differentiated to form an an attaching organ. (Oedogonium)

H-pieces: wall of overlapping H-shaped structures. (Tribonema)

Intercalary: arranged in the same series, as spores or heterocysts which occur in series with the vegetative cells rather than being terminal or lateral. (heterocyst of Anabeana)

Laminate: plate-like; layered.

Lateral groove: a groove in Dinoflagellates encircling the cell. (Ceratium)

Leucosin: a whitish food reserve characteristic of many of the Chrysophytam especially the Heterokontae; gives a metallic lustre to cell contents. (Dinobryon)

Lorica: a shell-like structure of varying shapes which houses an organism, has an opening through which organs of locomotion are extended. (Dinobryon)

Lunate: crescent-shaped; as of the new moon in shape. (Selenastrum)

Median construction: See constricted.

Metabolic: plastic, changing shape in motion as in many Euglena.

Micron: a unit of microscopical measurement; one 1/1000 of a millimeter, determined by using a micrometer in the eyepiece of the microscope which has been calibrated with a standard stage micrometer; expressed the symbol.

Moniliform: arranged like a string of beads; beadlike; lemon-shaped. (Anabeana)

Mother Cell: the cell which by mitosis or by internal cleavage gives rise to other cells (usually spores).

Multinucleate: with many nuclei.

Multiseriate: cells arranged in more than one row; a filament two or more cells in diameter. (Stigeonema)

Motile: motion caused by cilia or flagella. (Volvox)

Oblong: a curved figure, elongate with the ends broadly rounded but more sharply curved than the lateral margins.

Obovate: an ovate figure, broader at the anterior end than at the posterior.

Oogonium: a female sex organ, usually an enlarged cell; an egg case.

Oval: an elongate, curved figure with convex margins and with ends broadly and symmetrically curved but more sharply so than the lateral margin.

Ovoid: shaped like an egg; a curved figure broader at one end than at the other.

Paramylum: a solid, starch-like storage product in the Euglenophyta. (Euglena)

Parietal: along the wall; arranged at the circumference; marginal as opposed to central or azial in location.

Pellicle: a thin membrane. (Euglena)

Peridinin: a brown pigment characteristic of the Dinoflagellata. (Ceratium)

Periplast: bounding membrane of cells in Euglenoids and Chrysophytes.

Phycocyanin: a blue pigment found in the Cyanophyta, and in some Rhodophyta.

Phycoerythrin: a red pigment found in the Rhodophta, and in some Cyanophyta.

Plankton: organisms srifting in the water, or if swimming, not able to move against currents.

Plastid: a body or organelle of the cell, either containing pigments or in some instances colorless.

Plate: sections, polygonal in shape, composing the cell wall of some Dinoflagellata (the thecate or armored dinoflagellates).

Posterior: toward the rear; the end opposite the forward (anterior) end of a cell or of an organism.

Protoplast: the living part of the cell; the cell membrane and its contents usually enclosed by a cell wall of dead material.

Pseudocilia: meaning false cilia; flagella-like structures not used for locomotion as in Apiocystis and Tetraspora.

Pseudoparenchymatious: a false cushion; a pillow like mound of cells (usually attached) which actually is a compact series of short, often branched filaments. (Coleochaete)

Pseudovacuole: meaning a false vacuole; a pocket in the cytoplasm of many blue-green algae which contains gas or mucilage; is light refractive. (Microcystis)

Pyrenoid: a protein body around which starch or paramylum collects in a cell, usually buried in a chloroplast but sometimes free within the cytoplasm. (Oedogonium)

Pyiform: pear-shaped. (Pandorina)

Reniform: kidney-shaped; bean-shaped. (Dimorphocacus)

Replicate: infolded; folded back as in the cross walls of some species of Spirogyra; not a plane or straight wall.

Reticulate: netted, arranged to form a network; with openings.

Scale: siliceous or inorganic material covering the cell. (Mallomonas)

Semicell: a cell-half, as in the Placoderm desmids in which the cell has two parts that are mirror images of one another, the two parts often connected by a narrow isthmus. (Staurastrum)

Septum: a cross-partition, cross wall or a membrane complete or incomplete through the short diameter of a cell, sometimes parallel with the long axis.

Setae: a hair, usually arising from within a cell wall; or a hair-like extension formed by tapering of a filament of cells to a fine point.

Sheath: a covering, usually of mucilage, soft or firm; the covering of a colony of cells, or an envelope about one or more filaments of cells.

Siphonous: a tube; a thallus without cross partitions. (Vaucheria)

Solitary: unicellular; solitary. (Chlamydomonas)

Spine: a sharply-pointed projection from the cell wall. (Mallomonas)

Sproangium: a cell (sometimes an unspecialized vegetative cell) which gives rise to spores; the case which forms about the zygospores in the Zygnematales.

Star-shaped: See stellate

Stellate: with radiating projections from a common center; star-like. (Zygnema)

Stigma: see eyespot.

Suture: a groove between plates, as in some Dinoflagellata; a cleft-like crack or line in some zygospores of the Zygnemataceae. (Ceratium)

Thallus: a plant body which is not differentiated into root, stem and leal organs; a frond; the algal plant.

Theca; Thecate: a firm outer wall; a shell, sometimes with plates as in the Dinoflagellata. (Peridinium)

Test: a shell or covering external to the cell itself. See Lorica.

Transverse furrow (groove): a groove extending around the cell as in the Dinoflagellata. (Ceratium)

Trichrome: in blue-greens, a series of cells joined end to end. (Oscillatoria)

True Branch: a branch formed by means of lateral division of cells in a main filament. Includes all branched algae except those blue-green algae with false branching.

Tychoplankton: the plankton of waters near shore; organisms floating and entangled among weeds and in algal mats, not in the open water of a lake or stream.

Undulate: regularly wavy.

Unicellular: See solitary.

Vegetative: referring to a non-reproductive stage, activity, or cell as opposed to activities and stages involved in reproduction, especially sexual reproduction.

Xanthophyll: a yellow pigment of several kinds associated with chlorphyll, $C_{46}H_{56}O_2$.

Zoospore: an animal-like spore equipped with flagella and usually with an eye-spot.

This key was prepared by Dr. Matthew H. Hohn,
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Descriptors: Plankton, Identification Keys

CLASSIFICATION - FINDER
for
NAMES OF AQUATIC ORGANISMS
in
WATER SUPPLIES AND POLLUTED WATERS

Part I. The System of Classification

I INTRODUCTION

A Every type of living creature has a favorite place to live. There are few major groups that are either exclusively terrestrial or aquatic. The following remarks will therefore apply in large measure to both, but primary attention will be directed to aquatic types.

B One of the first questions usually posed about an organism is: "What is it?", usually meaning "What is it's name?". The naming or classification of biological organisms is a science in itself (taxonomy). Some of the principles involved need to be understood by anyone working with organisms however.

1 Names are the "key number", "code designation", or "file references" which we must have to find information about an unknown organism.

2 Why are they so long and why must they be in Latin and Greek? File references in large systems have to be long in order to designate the many divisions and subdivisions. There are over a million and a half items (or species) included in the system of biological nomenclature (very few libraries have a million books).

3 The system of biological nomenclature is regulated by international congresses.

a It is based on a system of groups and super groups, of which the foundation (which actually exists in nature) is the species. Everything else has been devised by man and is subject to change and revision as man's knowledge and understanding increase.

b The basic categories employed are as follows:

(1) Similar species are grouped into genera (genus)

(2) Similar genera are grouped into families

(3) Similar familes are grouped into orders

(4) Similar orders are grouped into classes

(5) Similar classes are grouped into phyla (phylum)

(6) Similar phyla are grouped into kingdoms

4 The scientific name of an organism is its genus name plus its species name. This is analogous to our system of surnames (family names) and given names (Christian names).

a The generic (genus) name is always capitalized and the species name written with a small letter. They should also be underlined or printed in italics when used in a technical sense. For example:

Homo sapiens - modern man

Homo neanderthalis - neanderthal man

Esox niger - Chain pickerel

Esox lucius - northern pike

Esox masquinongy - muskellunge

b Common names do not exist for most of the smaller and less familiar organisms. For example, if we wish to refer to members of the

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LIVING ORGANISMS

ENERGY FLOWS FROM LEFT TO RIGHT, GENERAL EVOLUTIONARY SEQUENCE IS UPWARD

PLANTS 5	**ANIMALS 81**		**FUNGI 250**
ORGANIC MATERIAL PRODUCED, USUALLY BY PHOTOSYNTHESIS	ORGANIC MATERIAL INGESTED OR CONSUMED DIGESTED INTERNALLY		ORGANIC MATERIAL REDUCED BY EXTRACELLULAR DIGESTION AND INTRACELLULAR METABOLISM TO MINERAL CONDITION
ENERGY STORED	ENERGY RELEASED		ENERGY RELEASED
FLOWERING PLANTS AND GYMNOSPERMS 76	ARACHNIDS 167	MAMMALS 243	BASIDIOMYCETES 266
	INSECTS 154	BIRDS 242	
CLUB MOSSES, FERNS 76	CRUSTACEANS 129	REPTILES 241	ASCOMYCETES 265
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DEVELOPMENT OF MULTICELLULAR OR COENOCYTIC ORGANISMS

HIGHER PROTISTA

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PIGMENTED FLAGELLATES 12	FLAGELLATED PROTOZOA 85	SPOROZOA 98	
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DEVELOPMENT OF A NUCLEAR MEMBRANE

LOWER PROTISTA (OR MONERA)

BLUE GREEN ALGAE 7		ACTINOMYCETES 253
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NOTE: NUMERALS REFER TO PARAGRAPHS IN PARTS 2 AND 3.

W. B. COOKE AND H. W. JACKSON, AFTER WHITTAKER

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genus *Anabaena* (an alga), we *must simply* use the generic name, and:

Anabaena planctonica,

Anabaena constricta, and

Anabaena flos-aquae

are three distinct species which have different significances to water treatment plant operations.

5 A complete list of the various categories to which an organism belongs is known as its "classification". For example, the classification of a type of frog spittle, a common filamentous alga, and a crayfish or crawdad are shown side by side below. Their scientific names are *Spirogyra crassa* and *Cambarus sciotensis*.

a Examples of the classification of an animal and a plant:

(Frog Spittle)		(Crayfish)
Plantae	*Kingdom*	Animalia
Chlorophyta	*Phylum*	Arthropoda
Chlorophyceae	*Class*	Crustacea
Zygnematales	*Order*	Decapoda
Zygnemataceae	*Family*	Palaemonidae
Spirogyra	*Genus*	Cambarus
crassa	*Species*	sciotensis

b These seven basic levels of organization are often not enough for the complete designation of one species among thousands; however, and so additional echelons of terms are provided by grouping the various categories into "super..." groups and subdividing them into "sub..." groups as: Superorder, Order, Suborder, etc. Still other category names such as "tribe", "division", "variety", "race", "section", etc. are used on occasion.

c Additional accuracy is gained by citing the name of the authority who first described a species (and the date) immediately following the species name. Authors are also often cited for genera or other groups.

d A more complete classification of the above crayfish is as follows:

Kingdom Animalia

Phylum Arthropoda

Class Crustacea

Subclass Malacostraca

Order Decapoda

Section Nephropsidea

Family Astacidae

Subfamily Cambarinae

Genus *Cambarus*

Species *sciotensis* Rhoades 1944

e It should be emphasized that since all categories above the species level are essentially human concepts, there is often divergence of opinion in regard to how certain organisms should be grouped. Changes result as knowledge grows.

f The most appropriate or correct name for a given species is also sometimes disputed, and so species *names* too are changed. The *species* itself, as an entity in nature, however, is relatively timeless and so does not change to man's eye.

II THE GENERAL RELATIONSHIPS OF LIVING ORGANISMS

A Living organisms (as contrasted to fossil types) have long been grouped into two kingdoms: Plant Kingdoms and Animal Kingdoms. Modern developments however have made this simple pattern technically untenable. It has become evident that there are as great and fundamental differences between certain other groups and these (two), as there are between the traditional "plant" and "animal". The accompanying chart consequently shows the Fungi as a third kingdom.

B The three groups are essentially defined as follows on the basis of their nutritional mechanisms:

1 Plantae: photosynthetic; synthesizing their own organic substance from inorganic minerals. Ecologically known as PRODUCERS.

2 Animalia: ingest and digest solid particles of organic food material. Ecologically known as CONSUMERS.

3 Fungi: extracellular digestion (enzymes secreted externally). Food material then taken in through cell membrane where it is metabolized and reduced to the mineral condition. Ecologically known as REDUCERS.

C Each of these groups includes simple, single celled representatives, persisting at lower levels on the evolutionary stems of the higher organisms.

1 These groups span the gaps between the higher kingdoms with a multitude of transitional forms. They are collectively called PROTISTA.

2 Within the protista, two principle sub-groups can be defined on the basis of relative complexity of structure:

a The bacteria and blue algae, lacking a nuclear membrane, may be considered as the lower protista or MONERA.

b The single celled algae and protozoa having a nuclear membrane, are best referred to simply as the higher protista.

Part II. Biological Classification

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Descriptors: Aquatic Organisms, Classification